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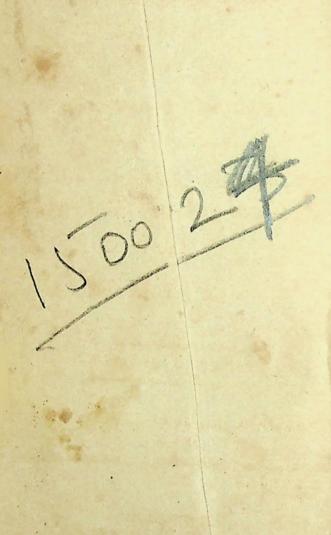
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# ASIATIC RESEARCHES;

OR,

## TRANSACTIONS

OF THE

## SOCIETY

INSTITUTED IN BENGAL,

FOR INQUIRING INTO THE

HISTORY AND ANTIQUITIES, THE ARTS, SCIENCES, AND LITERATURE

OF

ASIA.

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VOLUME THE SEVENTH.

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#### DESIDERATA.

## CONTINUED FROM THE SIXTH VOLUME OF THE ASIATIC RESEARCHES.

I. An accurate account of the Jews established on the coast of *Malabar*, or in any other part of *India*, of whatever colour or sect they may be.

## Suggested by Professor BRUNS of Helmstadt.

II. Historical records, as far as can be obtained, of the Braminical aristocracy in *Malabar*, which is said to have preceded the reign or vice-royalty of the Perumals; the form of their political constitution, its commencement and duration; and the laws by which the inhabitants of *Malabar* were governed at that period.

III. An authentic account of the conquest of Malabar by the Raja of Chaldesh, and its history

under the vice-royalty of the Perumals.

IV. Is the story of Shermaloo Permaloo, or Cheruma Perumal's conversion to the Moosulman faith, of his journey to *Arabia*, and of the division previously made by him of his territory, well founded or otherwise, and what was the exact period of those events?

V. Who were the chiefs among whom he divided his country, and do any genealogical records exist whereby the descent of the present rajas in Malabar, from those chiefs, may be traced?

VI.

VI. Wherein does the ritual observed by the Malabar, or the Nambooree Bruhmuns, differ from that prescribed to the Bruhmuns in other parts of India?

VII. How many and what descriptions of people inhabit the peninsula of Malaya, from Mergui southward; and what are the boundaries of their respective possessions? What are the languages, their laws and manners, and their mutual connexions with one another, in peace or war?

## (Proposed by Mr. MARSDEN.)

VIII. Do the oriental writings contain any means of ascertaining the precise meaning of the words and and kuseel, Job xxxviii. 31,) which our translation renders the Pleiades and Orion?

(Proposed in compliance with the request of an anonymous correspondent, published in the Asiatic

Annual Register for 1799.)

IX. What is the elevation, above the level of the sea, of the different districts in *India*, as ascertained by observations of the barometer, deduced from the course and rapidity of the fivers which pass through them, or from any other data?

X. What are the extent and form of the Deltas formed by the principal rivers in India? and in what respects do their inhabitants differ from those of

the more elevated and ancient tracts?

XI. In what districts has the quantity of cultivated land increased, or the reverse? and what permanent changes of climate have succeeded to the diminution or increase of forest land?

(The three last taken from Considerations on the Objects of Researches into the Institutions and Antiquities of the Hindoos. By A. Maconochie, Esq.)

XII. Accounts of any particular tribes or societies of the natives of India, whose peculiar manners or language may be worthy of attention, such as the Uteets, Jogees, Ughorees, Charubroos, Kubeer-Punthees, Nagas, &c. &c.

XIII. A detail of the extraordinary process termed by the natives musan jugana, by which they pretend

to procure a familiar spirit.

XIV. What is the present state of the Moosulman hierarchy in India, with respect to succession and other particulars; and how far are the rank and privileges of Peer, Moorshid, Wulee, Ghous, Qootub, Ubdal, &c. now real or imaginary?

XV. The same inquiry relative to the Hindoos and their Purohit, Gooroo, Purm Gooroo, Ucha-

rij, &c.

XVI. Statistical accounts of any districts in India, from actual observation or authentic records.

XVII. An accurate detail of the present state of any of the various trades or manufactures carried on

by the natives of India.

XVIII. What are the rules observed by Moosulmans relative to their female apartments; and who are the persons under the title of Muhrum admitted there?

XIX. An account of the mineral springs in Ben-

gal.

XX. Do any records exist of the expulsion of the Bood hists from Hindoostan, or what illustrations of that event can be drawn from collateral sources?

XXI. The Sanscrit names of as many of the na-

tural productions of India as can be obtained.

XXII. An account of Hindoo systems of astronomy, ancient or modern, with the names of their inventors, and a comparison of them with the systems that have obtained among the Chinese.

XXIII.

XXIII. Whether the historical periods of the four ages and munwuntaras, mentioned in the Purans, did not depend on ancient astronomical systems, and if so, what were the duration and times of commencement of such periods?



OF THE

# ASIATIC SOCIETY.

I.

ON THE

Course of the Ganges through Bengal.

BY MAJOR R. H. COLEBROOKE.

Ganges, and of other rivers which flow through Bengal, have been a subject of wonder to the generality of Europeans residing in these provinces; although to the natives, who have long witnessed such changes, the most remarkable encroachments of the rivers, and deviations of their streams, are productive of little surprise.

It is chiefly during the periodical floods, or while the waters are draining off, that the greatest mischief is done; and if it be considered, that at the distance of two hundred miles from the Sea, there is a difference

be more than twenty-five feet\* in the perpendicular height of the waters, at this feason, while at the outlets of the rivers (excepting the effect of the tides) they preserve nearly the same level at all seasons, some idea may be formed of the increased velocity with which the water will run off, and of the havoc which it will make on the banks. Accordingly, it is not unusual to find, when the rainy season is over, large portions of the bank sunk into the channel; nay, even whole fields and plantations have been sometimes destroyed; and trees, which, with the growth of a century, had acquired strength to resist the most violent storms, have been suddenly undermined, and hurled into the stream.

The encroachments, however, are as often carried on gradually, and that partly in the dry feason; at which time the natives have leisure to remove their effects, and change the sites of their dwellings, if too near the steep and crumbling banks. I have seen whole villages thus deserted, the inhabitants of which had rebuilt their huts on safer spots inland, or had removed entirely to some neighbouring village or town. Along the banks of the Ganges, where the depredations of the stream are greatest, the people are so accustomed to such removals, that they build their huts with such light materials only, as they can, upon emergency, carry off with ease; and a brick or mud wall is scarcely ever to be met with in such situations.

fuperfluous nor uninteresting.

† The Topography, I mi

<sup>\*</sup> This subject has already employed the pen of Major Rennell: See his Account of the Ganges and Burrampooter Rivers, in the Philosophical Transactions for 1781; also republished in his Memoir of a Map of Hindoslan; but it is presumed, nevertheless, that any additional remarks, or detail of sacts, relating to so curious a subject, will not be thought

<sup>†</sup> The Topography, I might almost say the Geography, of a large portion of the country, will be liable to perpetual fluctuation from this cause; as the face of the country is not only altered by the rivers, but the villages are sometimes removed from one side to the other; some are completely destroyed, and new villages are continually rising up in other some

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THE unsettled state of the rivers in Bengal may be attributed alfo, in a great measure, to the looseness of the foil through which they flow; but the de-Aructive operation which Nature continually carries on in this way, is in some degree compensated by her bounty in forming new lands, either by alluvious on the opposite shore, or by islands, which rise up in the middle of the stream, and ultimately become connected with the main land, by the closing up of one of the channels. If this happens on the fide where the encroachment was made, the whole force of the ftream is diverted into the opposite channel, and the further progress of the river on that fide is stopped. But if, on the contrary, the junction is formed on the fhelving fide, a much greater encroachment will take place, in consequence of the additional quantity of water which is thrown into the larger channel; and thus the river will continue to undermine and fweep away the bank, until a fimilar accident, or fome other cause, obliges it to reassume a more direct course: but I have never known an instance where the inslection in the course of the Ganges has been so great as it may commonly be observed in the smaller rivers, nor do I think it possible that in a stream of such magnitude it should ever be fo.

As every current of water will quickly deposit the particles of earth, or fand, which in its course it has detached from the sides, or raked up from the bottom of its bed; so we find considerable shoals, and sand banks, in most rivers; but particularly in such as slow through a loose and sandy soil: accordingly the Ganges gives birth to numerous islands, which are mostly of an extent proportioned to its vast bulk. Having had opportunities of observing these islands, in almost every stage of their growth, I have been astonished at the rapidity with which they have sometimes been thrown up, and at the magnitude to which they have ultimately swelled.

WHEN the inundation is gone off, and the river has subsided to its ordinary level in the dry season, considerable fand-banks are frequently found in places where, but the preceding year, the channel had been deep, and perfectly navigable. These gatherings of fand are fometimes fo confiderable, as to divert the principal stream into a new, and, in general, a more direct course; for it is only by the encroachments on the bank that inflections in the ftream are produced; while the fudden alluvions, and frequent depositions of fand, have a tendency to fill up the channel into which it had been diverted, and to restore the straightness of its course. Such of the islands as are found, on their first appearance, to have any soil, are immediately cultivated; and water melons, cucumbers, and fur soo, or mustard, become the produce of the first year. It is not uncommon even to see rice growing in those parts where a quantity of mud has been deposited near the water's edge.

Some of these islands, before they have acquired a degree of stability which might enable them to refift the force of the stream, are entirely swept away; but whenfoever, by the repeated additions of foil, they appear to be fufficiently firm, the natives then no longer hesitate to take possession of them, and the new lands become an immediate subject of altercation and dispute. The new fettlers bring over their families, cattle, and effects; and having felected the highest fpots for the fites of their villages, they erect their dwellings with as much confidence as they would do on the main land; for, although fixed upon a fandy foundation, the stratum of soil which is uppermost, being interwoven with the roots of grafs, and of other plants, and hardened by the fun, becomes at length sufficiently firm to relist the future attacks of the river. Thus strengthened and matured, these islands will continue a number of years, and may last during

during the lives of most of the new possessions; as they are, in general, liable to destruction, only by the same gradual process of undermining, and encroachment, to which the banks of the river are subject.

When an illand becomes fo large, that it is not found practicable to cultivate the whole, which happens in those parts of the country where the people are either less numerous, or have no immediate inducement to take possession of the new land, it is soon overrun with reeds, long grass, jow,\* and baubul, twhich form extensive, and almost impenetrable, thickets, affording shelter to tigers, busfaloes, deer, and other wild animals. The rest of the lands, in general, produce good passurage; and many thousands of oxen are bred and nourished upon them. The tigers commit frequent depredations among the herds, but are seldom known to carry off any of the people. The fertility of the soil increasing with every subsequent inundation, to which the burning of the reeds and grass, in the dry season, greatly contributes, induces the inhabitants, at length, to extend the limits of their cultivation, and to settle more permanently upon them.

The islands of the Ganges are distinguishable from the main land, by their having few or no trees, even long after a communication has been formed by the closing up of one of the channels, which, indeed, generally happens in a few years. The island called Dera Khowaspour, which is one of the largest, has continued longer in an insulated state than any other I know; which may be attributed to its peculiar situation, immediately below the confluence of the Ganges and Coofa rivers; the channel of the former running chiefly on the south side; while the stream that issues from the latter, has a tendency to keep open the channel on the north side. It is probable that this

island owes its existence to both rivers; but, as is evident from its appearance, has been thrown up in the manner above described, and was not originally a part of the main land. It is  $9\frac{1}{2}$  miles in length, and  $2\frac{1}{2}$  across in the broadest part, and contains about 20 square miles of land, mostly cultivated, and highly productive, with several villages. I was informed, that in the highest floods, the people are obliged to erect temporary huts, on pillars of wood, or stages; but that it is seldom they are reduced to that necessity. To the S. W. of Dera Khowaspour is another island of less dimensions, and entirely overrun with jow. The passage between is navigable, as a great part of the waters of the Coosa slow through it.

THE appearance of some of these islands is singularly rural and pleasing, if not altogether romantic; for, although an extensive flat can hardly come under the latter denomination, yet it may partake of a degree of wildness, that will please the lovers of nature; at the same time, that the peaceful appearance of the flocks, fields, and habitations, will give delight to the philanthropist. If we present to our imaginations a wide extended plain, with pens for cattle, and a few humble huts, whose tops are crowned with gourds, and the intervening space highly cultivated; suppose wheat, barley, and pulse of all forts, to be growing in abundance, the flowers of the latter presenting to the eye a variety of rich tints; let us conceive numerous herds of cattle to be grazing, and a few scattered villages at a distance; suppose the horizon to bound the view, with no other remote objects than a long line of grass jungle, and a few trees, which, from their great diflance on the main land, are barely difcernible; and we shall have a tolerable picture of an island in the Ganges. If we fancy, at the fame time, that the lark is foaring, the air cool, and the fky perfectly unclouded, we shall have a still more lively idea of the state of these islands during at least fix months of the year.

THE banks of the Ganges exhibit a variety of appearances, according to the nature of the foil, or the degree of force with which the current strikes against them. In those parts where the velocity of the stream is greatest, and the soil extremely loose, they become as perpendicular as a wall, and crumble in so frequently, that it is dangerous to approach them. bank is oftentimes excavated into a number of deep bays, with projecting points between them, round which the current rushes with great rapidity; but is confiderably flackened, and has even a retrograde motion, in the interior part of the gulph. \* Some of these afford convenient landing places, or Gauts, where the natives perform their ablutions, water their cattle, and fasten their boats to the shore. In other parts, where the current is flack, the bank is generally found sloping and firm. In the higher parts of the country, where a conker + foil prevails, the banks of the Ganges are not fo liable to be undermined, and are even sufficiently firm to resist the utmost efforts of the stream; but in Bengal there are few places where a town, or village, can be established on the Ganges, with any certainty of long retaining the advantage of fuch a fituation, as it will be liable either to be destroyed by the river, or, on the contrary, to be to-tally abandoned by it. There are some spots, however, which are not subject to the former inconvenience, and here the fites of fome principal places, and manufacturing towns, have been established; as Godagary, Comerpour, Beauleah, and Surdah, built upon a ridge of high ground running along the N. E. fiele of the Ganges, and which appears to be the extreme boundary of the river on that fide. The foil of

<sup>\*</sup> These little bays or gulphs are very common in all the rivers of Bengal, and are owing, probably, to the unequal encroachment of the stream on the banks in those places where the soil has the least tenacity. They naturally produce a whirling motion in the current; and may possibly, in some instances, be the means of checking the further encroachment of the river; but I have never known an instance of their striking out into new branches, as Major Rennell has supposed.

this ridge is a stiff clay, intermixed with conker. It is probable, indeed, that the high ground on which the ancient city of Gour formerly stood, is a continuation of the same ridge, interrupted only by the course of the Mahanuddee River.

ALONG the S. W. bank of the Ganges, from Oudanullah to Horrisonker, and perhaps considerably surther to the eastward, not a place occurs that can be said to be permanently fixed. Bogwangola, which is a considerable mart for grain, and from which the city of Moorshudabad is principally supplied, exhibits more the appearance of a temporary sair, or encampment, than that of a town. It has, more than once, been removed, in consequence of the encroachment, and subsequent retiring of the river; upon whose banks, for the convenience of water carriage, and boat building, it has been always found expedient to keep it.

THE Ganges, as I have hinted above, differs from the fmaller rivers, in this particular, that its windings are never fo intricate; for let the encroachment, which is the principal cause of the inflection in its course, be carried on during any number of years, it will ultimately be stopped by the island which grows up opposite to the fide encroached on, and which, fooner or later, will form a junction with the main The upper point of the island which divides the stream, does, by retarding its velocity, and obliging it to deposit the particles of earth and fand with which it is impregnated, quickly gather fresh matter, and shoot upwards; while the nearest shelving point above it, either continues stationary, or advances to meet it. Thus the intermediate channel is gradually straitened, and less water flows through it; at the same time that the increasing shallowness of the passage impedes the current, and causes a still greater precipitation of fand.

The channel being, at length, completely choaked up, will, in the hot feason, be left dry; when the whole stream being diverted into the opposite channel, and glancing along the side of the new formed isthmus, will soon, provided the river continues to fall, form a steep ridge. This, however, will be over-flowed again, and may, for a time, afford a passage in the rainy season; but it will ultimately rise up into a formidable bank, and effectually close the passage. The lower part of the channel, however, forms a creek, in which a considerable depth of water will remain for some time; but which receiving a fresh supply of matter on every ensuing slood, will be gradually filled up.

THE survey of part of the Ganges, on which I was deputed in 1796, gave me an opportunity of ascertaining the most remarkable changes which had occurred since the former charts were constructed; the following detail of which, aided by an inspection of the accompanying map, will, it is hoped, be sufficient to illustrate and confirm the truth of the foregoing remarks.

NEAR Sooty, the great river had encroached to within a mile of that place; the distance, according to the old maps, having formerly been five miles; and by the reports of the oldest inhabitants of the neighbouring villages, it was in their remembrance, about forty years ago, reckoned four coss. The narrow isthmus between it and the Cossimbazar river, was gradually becoming less, and, notwithstanding the old passage by Saddygunge, had, in a most extraordinary manner, been closed up by a mound of sand, yet there was some appearance that a new channel of communication would be formed, by the river breaking through the neck of land; the encroachment still continuing, they said, at the rate of an hundred yards every year. It is possible, however, that the encroachment may be

flopped by the diversion of the principal stream into another channel; as an island of considerable extent has grown up opposite to the side encroached on, and may, in time, form a junction with the main land above it, in the manner I have already pointed out. Should this take place, the river which now runs in a fouthwesterly direction from Turtipour towards Sooty, will resume a direction more analagous to the general line of its course through Bengal; and the land which it has carried away, by encroaching on its western bank, will be gradually restored.

The alteration which appeared in the great river near the inlet of the Baugrutty, or Cossimbazar river, at Mohungunge, was no less conspicuous; the main stream having receded considerably from that place within my remembrance, and a large island having been thrown up, which is already cultivated and inhabited. The river was encroaching on its Eastern bank, and appeared to be gaining ground again towards Gour; the walls of which city, it is well attested, were

formerly washed by the Ganges.

ANOTHER confiderable gathering of islands had taken place between Rajemahl and Oodanullah; and the principal stream which, by the maps, would appear to have run formerly close to the latter place, was not, at the time of this survey, nearer than  $2\frac{1}{2}$  miles. The island nearest to Oodanullah was separated only from the main bank by a narrow branch, which was then fordable, and which extended to a considerable distance both above and below that place. This island was only cultivated in part, the rest of the lands being overrun with a thick jungle, in which I was informed were deer, wild hogs, buffaloes, and tigers.\*

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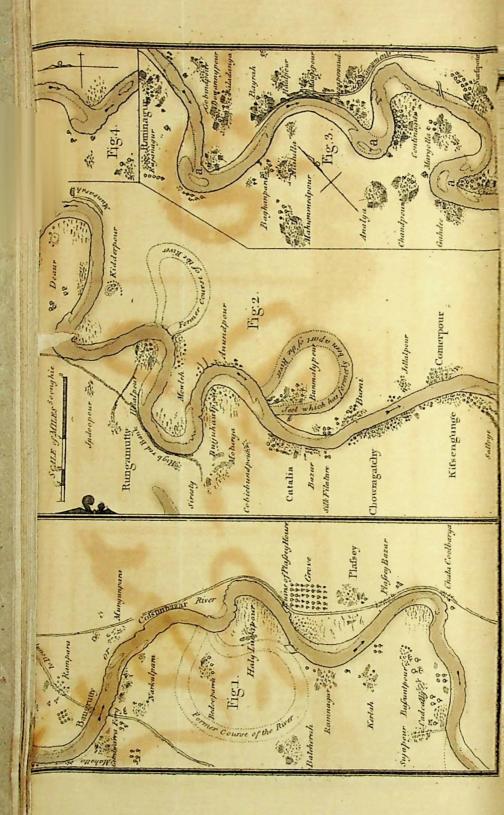
<sup>\*</sup>Here I brought to and pitched a tent, to observe the eclipse of the moon, on the 14th of December, 1796, I had occasion also to traverse a part of the island. The hills which were in view, diversified the prospect, while the tinkling bells of the cattle returning to their pens, at the close of day, had a rural, and pleasing effect. The serenity and awful stillness of the ensuing night, which was interrupted only by the wild notes and calls of various birds in the neighbouring thickets, contributed altogether to render this place one of the most singular and romantic abodes which I can well remember.

AT Rajemahl, the projecting point on which the ruins of the ancient palace and buildings are feen, has for many years refilted the force of the current; and the massy piles of masonry, some of which have subsided into the channel, have co-operated with the natural strength of the bank, in repelling the efforts of the stream.

THE Rajemahl Hills, from which feveral rocky points project into the Ganges, as at Sicrygully, Pointy, and Pattergotta, have for ages opposed the encroachments of the river; notwithstanding which, it has more than once excavated all the loose soil which lay between the projecting points. This, however, has been as often restored by the alluvions, and islands, which have grown up, and ultimately formed a junction with the bank.

THE alteration of the river at Colgong, may be reckoned among the most extraordinary which have ever been observed in the Ganges; and of this I can speak with greater confidence, if possible, than of those abovementioned, having been an eye witness of the state of the river at this place at four feveral periods, in three of which I observed a considerable difference, viz. in the dry seasons of 1779, 1788, and 1796-7. I have a drawing of Colgong, taken by myself at the former of these periods, which represents the river to be a broad and open fircam, and free from shallows; at the same time, although the three rocks near Colgong do not come into the view, yet I can remember that they were furrounded by dry land, and appeared to be at some little distance from the shore. This is confirmed by the old map, only that the Boglepore Nulla is represented as passing between the rocks and the town. In January, 1788, I found the three rocks completely infulated, and the current rushing between them with great rapidity; the river having undermined and borne away the whole of the foil which had for many years adhered to them, and having formed a bed for itself, with a confiderable depth of water, which continued for feveral years to be the principal, and indeed the only navigable channel of the river in the dry feafon. Here boats were frequently in imminent danger of striking against the rocks, as during the period of the river's encroachment, and particularly in the rains, it was difficult to avoid them when coming down with the fream. While the river continued thus to expand itfelf, an island was growing up in the middle of its bed, which, when I last faw it, (in January, 1797,) extended from near Pattergotta, 5 miles below Colgong, to a confiderable distance above the latter place, being altogether 8 miles in length, and 2 in breadth; and filling nearly the whole space which had been occupied by the principal stream in the year 1779. The quantity of fand, and foil, which the river must have deposited to effect this, will appear prodigious, if it be confidered, that the depth of water in the navigable part of the Ganges is frequently upwards of 70 feet; and the new islands had risen to more than 20 feet above the level of the stream. Again, the quantity of earth which it had excavated in forming a new channel for itself, will appear no less astonishing: some idea of this may, however, be conceived, from the foundings which I caused to be taken near the rocks, which vavied from 70 to 90 feet. If we add 24 feet for the height of the foil that had formerly adhered to these rocks, as indicated by the marks it had left, it will appear that a column of 114 feet of earth had here been removed by the stream.\* The encroachment of the river had, however, been ultimately flopped by the refistance it met with from a hard conker bank to the fouth-eastward of these rocks, and by the encreasing growth of the illand, which had straitened the upper part of the channel; and caused it to be choaked with fand. Accordingly, in January, 1797, this channel resembled more a stagnated creek than the branch of a great river; and, notwithstanding the great depth of water which remained in some parts, it was at its up-





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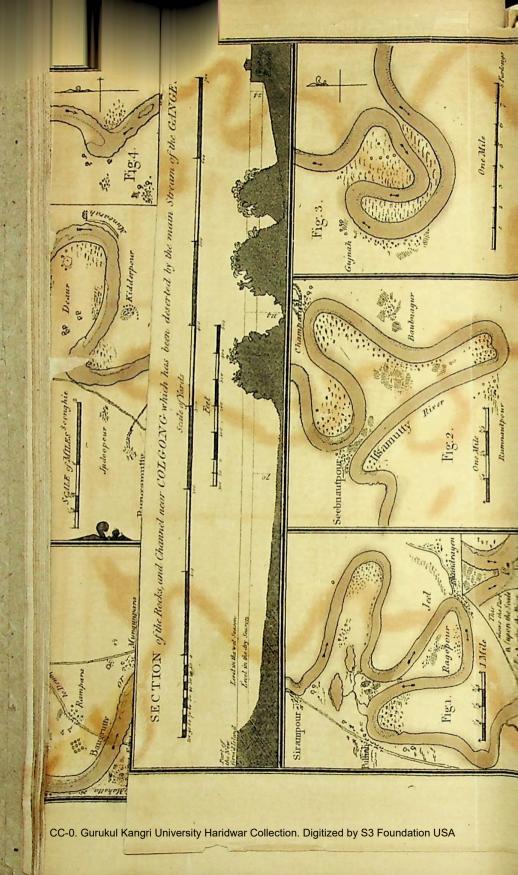
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per inlet unnavigable for the smallest boats. The main stream had been diverted into the opposite channel, on the N. W. side of the island; so that boats, on their way up and down the river, did not, at this time, pass nearer to Colgong than  $2\frac{1}{2}$  miles. The whole length of the channel which had been thus rendered in a great measure unnavigable, exceeded 10 miles; and I have little doubt but in a few years it will be impassable even in the rains.

Thus the Ganges, which for many years had flowed in a full stream by Colgong, may be said now to have deserted that place. The new island, which has been the principal cause of this diversion of the stream, is hitherto but partially inhabited and cultivated, the greatest part of it being overrun with reeds and tamarisk. The old channel exhibited a striking contrast to the appearance it formerly had, as not a single boat was to be seen; and the slender stream which slowed in at its upper inlet, not having power to communicate any visible motion to the vast body of water which remained in the lower part of the channel, it appeared, of course, as still as a lake, or a pond; and a great part of the main bank, which had formerly been in a crumbling state, had now become sloping \* and sirm.

Being enabled, on my return from Colgong, to complete the survey of the river down to Horrisonker, I found it, throughout a course of 160 miles, to differ widely from the old charts in almost every part: but having already mentioned the most remarkable changes which had occurred from Sooty upwards, it remains only now to give an account of such as I observed be-

low that place.

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<sup>\*</sup> This is a usual effect of the flagnation of water in all rivers; for as the current which bears upon a bank has a tendency to sap and undermine it, and to render it sleep; so when this cause no longer exists, the bank will gradually recover that degree of inclination which is natural to the margins of lakes, or of slagnated pools. The upper part of the bank being moistened by the rains, crumbles in, and if the current be not sufficiently strong to bear it away, will gradually subside at an angle of 45 degrees, and fill up a part of the channel.

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The main stream of the Ganges, which now passes near Sooty, runs in a south-easterly direction, from thence towards Comrah and Gobindpour, the latter of which is close on its bank. The villages of Saddagunge, Singnagur, Bansbarya, Burrumtola, Narrainpour, Sicollypour, and Soondery, no longer existed according to the positions which were ascribed to them in the old maps, \* some having been entirely destroyed, and others re-established, under the same or different names, across the river, and partly upon the new formed island of Sundeepa.†

The quantity of land which has been here destroyed by the river, in the course of a sew years, will amount, ipon the most moderate calculation, to 40 square riles, or 25,600 acres; but this is counterbalanced, in a great measure, by the alluvion which has taken place on the opposite shore, and by the new island of Sundeepa, which last alone contains upwards of 10 square miles.

The main stream of the Ganges, which, by Major Rennell's map, appears to have passed within a mile and half of Nabobgunge, is now removed to a considerable distance from that place; and the channel from thence almost down to Godagary, having been a good deal contracted, in consequence of the diversion of the stream to the southward of Nilcontpour island, is now considered as the continuation and outlet of the Mahanuddee river. The inflection in the course of the Ganges produced by the encroachment towards Sooty, Comrah, and Gobindpour, has encreased the distance by water from Turtipour to Godagary, in the dry season, to 26 miles; whereas by the maps it appears to have been formerly little more than 18.

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<sup>\*</sup> See Major Rennell's Map of the Coffimbazar Island.

† See the Plan which accompanies this Memoir.

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The principal branch of the Ganges beyond Go-bindpour, now runs East, and E. by N. and turning pretty sharply round the point which is opposite to the present outlet of the Mahanundee, runs in a due southern course by Sultangunge, and Godagary, as far as Bogwangola; which town, as I have hinted above, has been always liable to shift its situation. My survey ascertains it to be 3½ miles nearer to Moorshudabad than it formerly stood; but of this a more precise idea may be formed, by comparing its present bearings and distance from Godagary, and Bomeneah, with those which may be deduced from Major Rennell's map of the Cossimbazar island.

	Bearing.	Dift. in Miles.
Godagary to Bogwangola, by Survey (1797)	S. 2 W.	9
Ditto to Ditto, by former Surveys,	S. 36 E.	9 <sup>t</sup> / <sub>2</sub>
Bomeneah to Bogwangola, by Survey (1797)	N. 21 E.	6
Ditto to Ditto, by former Surveys,	N. 50 E.	9 <sup>t</sup> / <sub>2</sub>

FROM Bogwangola the river turns to the eastward, and the stream strikes with peculiar force upon a steep and crumbling bank, which indicates that the encroachment is still carried on rapidly below that place. The appearance of this bank was fuch as I scarcely remembered to have feen; and it would have been dangerous to approach it in some parts, as the fragments which were, every now and then, detached from it, would have been fufficient to fink the largest boat. In dropping down with the stream, which ran at the rate of near 6 miles in the hour, I could very fenfibly feel the undulations which the huge portions of the falling bank produced in the water, at the distance of upwards of a hundred yards; and the noise with which they were accompanied, might be compared to the distant rumbling of artillery, or thunder. I am convinced, that had any boat attempted to track up under this bank at that time, it would have met with inevitable destruction.\*

The encroachment of the river in this part of its course has destroyed a considerable portion of arable land, and has been the cause, likewise, of the removal or destruction of the villages of Banchdaw, Continagur, Chandabad, Kistnagur, and probably of many others which were not inserted in the old maps. The village of Sangarpour, formerly  $2\frac{1}{2}$  miles from the nearest reach of the Ganges, is now close to its bank; and here the river appears to occupy a part of the track which Major Rennell calls the "Old Course of the Ganges."

From hence the stream runs E. N. E. as far as Allypour, at which place, I was informed by the Zemeendar, that in his remembrance, upwards of twenty villages had been destroyed by the river, and that the people had mostly settled on the new islands which within these sew years had been forming opposite to his village. Indeed, the gathering of islands, which I had observed from Burgotchy down to this place, appeared prodigious; yet not a single-tree was to be seen on any of them; and from the colour of the thatched huts, it appeared plainly that some of the villages had been recently established.

THE inlet to the Culcully river, which had formerly been at Bogwangola, is now removed feveral miles lower down. This has been a necessary consequence of the Ganges sweeping away all the land on each side

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<sup>\*</sup> Since my return from the survey, I have been informed of the loss of feveral boats under this bank; which accidents have been owing probably to the imprudence of the boat-men, in not tracking on the shelving side. This, however, when there is not a clean shelving sand, is attended with difficulty, and in general with delay, which induces the boat-men sometimes to prefer the steep side, although at the risk of being overwhelmed,

of it to a confiderable extent, and the present entrance of the Culcully is near Murcha. This little river is become the thoroughfare for all boats passing from or to the Ganges by the Fellinghy, the old communication between them being now entirely shut up.

The main branch of the Ganges runs N. E. by E. to about 4 miles below Allypour; whence turning E. and E. by S. it passes, as formerly, within 2 miles of Bauleah; being separated only from that place by two long islands, the uppermost of which, called Gopalnagur dera, is not marked in the old maps. It is doubtful, indeed, whether it existed at the period when the former surveys were taken. The branch which divides them runs in an E. N. E. direction towards Bauleah, but is not navigable for large boats in the dry season. The lowermost of the two is narrower than it would appear by the old maps, but reaches almost to Surdah, as it is therein represented.

On my approach to Cutlamary, I entered a new branch, through which a confiderable body of water flowed with fome rapidity; and this led me close to Rajapour, leaving Echamarry on the left. It would appear, on inspecting Major Rennell's map, that no fuch passage as this had existed formerly; and, indeed, the people informed me, that it had only lately been opened by the great river, the main flream of which, however, continues its course, as heretofore, in an Easterly direction towards Surdah. This was the only instance I had observed, of the Ganges having infulated a part of the main land, its usual process of forming islands being such as I have before described. It is probable, nevertheless, that the island of Echamarry, which is very extensive, and on which are several other villages, may owe its existence to an alluvion, which took place at fome remote period; or that it might originally have been an island, which, VOL. VII.

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having joined itself to the main land, had afterwards been detached from it. I am the more inclined to this belief, as its appearance was fimilar to other islands of the Ganges, there being no trees of any growth upon it, excepting the mimofa nilotica, or baubul, of which there were feveral clumps about the villages. The breadth of the new channel varied from one to two furlongs, with a confiderable depth of water throughout; and the banks, in some parts, appeared to have fuffered great violence. In one place, particularly, I was struck with their uncommon appearance; a slip of land, 5 furlongs in length, having detached itself from the main bank, and subsided into the channel. A fimilar effect, although in a lefs degree, was visible on the opposite shore; and in many other parts, huge portions of the foil had funk, and formed a double bank, the lower ledge of which was in some places very little above the level of the stream. The continuation of this branch led near Dunyrampour, and terminated a little beyond Sahebnagur, where I entered the great river again, which here runs with confiderable velocity in a Southerly direction.

Passing Jalabarya,\* my boatmen pointed out to me, what they called the mouth of the Jellinghy river, which was shut up with a solid bank across the whole breadth of it; but this, in fact, must have been the main channel of the Ganges itself, which formerly ran in that direction, as the real head of the Jellinghy is several miles surther to the southward. By a survey of part of the Ganges, taken by Major Rennell in the year 1764, it appears that the main stream ran close by the town of Jellinghy; and in his "Account of the Ganges and Burrampooter Rivers," he has particularly mentioned the extraordinary encroachment of the river,

<sup>\*</sup> This village is probably the Dyrampour of the old maps.

river, which, in his time, had gradually removed the outlet of the Jellinghy three quarters of a mile further down. The maps, which have been published, all represent the great river as running in that direction; only, that in those of the Cossimbazar island, and of the Ganges from Surdah to Colligonga,\* it would appear doubtful whether the main stream ran on the West or East side of the island of Nipara. There cannot be a doubt, however, that the former was the case, elfe the encroachment could not have happened; and it is equally certain that the case is now altered; for, by the junction of the upper point of the island with the main land, the whole stream has been diverted in a South-Easterly direction, and does not now approach nearer to the town of Jellinghy than 21 miles. old inlet of the Jellinghy river has been, in consequence, not only rendered unnavigable, but the whole of the channel between Nipara and the main land, viz. from Falabarya down to Dewangunge, + near 12 miles in length, has been completely filled up, and is now cultivated. A confiderable portion, however, of Nipara island has been washed away; and the remainder of it no longer exists under that name, but is called Monimpour dera. It would appear, indeed, by the direction which the main stream of the Ganges had so late as the year 1795, that it had forced a passage through this island; which seems the more probable, from the name of Monimpour being now common to the land on each fide of it.

The main stream, which, in the year 1795, ran directly down to the inlet of the Howleah river, has, fince that period, been directed again still further to the eastward; and here I beheld with astonishment the B 2 change

### \* See the Bengal Atlas.

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<sup>†</sup> This village having been lately established, is not found in the old maps. It is situated near the inlet of the Howleah or Comer river, at Mayesconda.

change which, in less than two years, had taken place; a confiderable portion of the main channel, which, at the period abovementioned, had contained nearly the whole stream of the Ganges, being, at the time I last faw it, so completely filled with fands, that I hardly knew myself to be in the same part of the river. The fands, in some parts, rose several feet above the level of the stream; and the people had already begun to cultivate fur foo and rice, in the very spots where the deepest water had formerly been. Two islands, of confiderable extent, appeared to be quite new; and the channel, in some places, had been reduced, from the breadth of an English mile, to a furlong or less. The main stream, having forced its way in a new direction, did not at this time pass nearer to the inlet of the Howleah than 31 miles, nor nearer than 2 to Horrisonker.

This remarkable change, I was informed, took place during the extraordinary inundation of 1796; at which time the floods had rifen to an unufual height in almost every part of the country; but it must have been chiefly while the waters were draining off, that such an immense body of sand could have been deposited. The inlet of the Howleah had been, in consequence, rendered somewhat difficult of access, and I was obliged to make a circuit round the new islands, of several miles, to get into it; but, notwithstanding the diversion of the stream, I found a considerable depth of water remaining under the main bank, although scarcely any current was visible from Horrisonker to Dewangunge.\* On my approach to this place, I was informed that the passage was no longer practicable

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<sup>\*</sup> Water is found under the banks of the deserted channels of the Ganges for a considerable time after they cease to be navigable in the middle of their beds, the space immediately under the bank being generally the last that is filled up. I have likewise observed that, during the growth of the islands, the sand usually gathers round the upper point of the island, and rises to a considerable height, before the space which it leaves between itself and the bank of the island is completely filled.

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practicable for boats proceeding to Calcutta by the Iffamutty\* river, as many shallows had been formed to a confiderable distance below the inlet. The marks of the inundation were, indeed, very visible here; but in one part of the channel opposite to Dewangunge, where I expected to have met with the first shallow, I founded from 20 to 60 feet, in the very place where there had been a ford but two years before. This will ferve to convey an idea, not only of the rapidity with which the waters of the inundation can excavate the loofe foil of Bengal, but also, of the inconstant and fluctuating state of the rivers in general; for I soon found that, notwithstanding the prodigious depth of water at Dewangunge, the Howleah river had been, in an equal degree, choaked up in other parts below that place; and I met with great difficulty in paffing over the shallows which had been formed, although the Budjerow in which I travelled did dot draw above two feet water.

HAVING now detailed the particular changes in the course of the Ganges which have come under my notice, I shall conclude this part of the subject with a few general observations concerning that river, referving what I have to say on the smaller branches to

a separate Section of this Memoir.

The Ganges, in its course through Bengal, may be faid to have under its dominion a considerable portion of the flat country; for not only the channel which, at any given time, contains the principal body of its waters, but also as much of the land, on each side, as is comprehended within its collateral branches, is liable to inundation, or to be destroyed by the encroachments of the stream, may be considered as belonging to the river. We must, of course, include any track, or old channel, through which it had formerly run, and into which there is any probability of its ever returning again; as the Baugrutty nulla at Gour; the

<sup>\*</sup> The Issuantty is only a continuation of the Howleah or Comer river, which lower down assumes the name of Jaboona, and falling in with the Royn Color of University Haridwan Gallection Digitized by \$3 Foundation USA

track called "Old Course of the Ganges," in the Cossimbazar island; or the channel which has been, within these few years, so completely silled up near Jellinghy. Considered in this way, the Ganges will be found to occupy a considerable expanse, of which a more correct idea may be formed, by taking the distance between any two places opposite to one another, which had formerly been, or one of which may still remain on the verge of, or in the vicinity of the stream; for instance,

Total Charles of the Line of the case of		Miles.
Oodanulla to the ruins of Gour, -	_	15
Furruckabad to ditto,		14
Comrah to Nabobgunge, — —	-	103
Comerpour to Bogwangola, -	-	$9\frac{1}{4}$
Extreme breadth of river bed between }  Jellinghy and Maizeconda,	_	$9\frac{1}{2}$

Ir corresponding sections of the bed of the river, and neighbouring ground, were represented, it would probably appear, that all the land is disposed in regular strata; whence we might with certainty conclude, that the whole had been at some former periods deposited by the stream.

The strata, in general, consist of clay, sand, and vegetable earth; the latter of which is always uppermost, except when in some extraordinary high slood, a new layer of sand is again deposited over it, by which means the ground becomes barren, or is at least materially injured.

The bed of the Ganges can scarcely be said to be permanent in any part of its course through Bengal. There are, however, a sew places, where, from local causes, the main channel, and deepest water, will probably be always sound; as Monghir, Sultangunge, Pattergotta, Pointy, Sicrigully, and Rajemahl; at all which places there are rocky points projecting into the stream, and where some parts of the bed of the river are stony, or its banks consist of conker.

# On the smaller RIVERS and BRANCHES of the GANGES.

The tributary streams of the Ganges, and the numerous channels by which it discharges its waters to the sea, resemble each other in proportion as they differ in size from the main river. Of the former, the Goggra, the Soane, and the Coosa, may be reckoned among the largest; and these, on the slightest inspection of the maps, will appear to slow in more direct courses, than any of the smaller streams in their vicinity. Of the latter, the Cossimbazar and Fellinghy rivers, which, by their junction, form the Hoogly; the Comer, or Issamutty, which becomes the Faboona; the Gorroy, and Chandnah, are the principal; but of these, the two last are only navigable throughout during the dry season.\* Such of these rivers as are narrowest, are remarkable for their windings; and in this respect they differ materially from the large rivers, all of which have a tendency to run in more direct lines.

THE following Table exhibits a comparison of the relative differences in the lengths of their courses, in given spaces.

RIVERS.	Mean orealth of mai	d na ce	Length of their Courfe.	Excefs for Wind- ings.
Ganges, from Pointy to Bauleah,	Mics	B.Mil's	9	0.
	. 1	100	125	25
The Goggra, or Dewah. from its outlet upwards,	1	100	112	12
The Hoogly river, from Calcutta to Nuddea,	3 4	60		16
The Goomty, from its outlet upwards, .	1/4	100	175	75
The Islamutty, and Jaboona, from Dewangunge				
to Baufetulla,	<u>I</u>	100	217	117

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<sup>\*</sup> There have been inflances of all these rivers continuing open in their turns in the dry season. The Jellinghy used formerly to be navigable during the whole or greatest part of the year. The Cossimbazar river was navigable in the dry season of 1796; and the Islanutty continued so for several successive years; but experience has shewn that they are none of them to be depended on.

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In the last it appears, that the distance is more than doubled by the windings of the stream; and I could produce many more instances to shew, how much the small rivers exceed the larger in this particular,

As all the rivers which I have mentioned flow over the fame flat country, and some of them in directions almost parallel to each other, it is evident that they must have nearly the same declivity in equal spaces. We may conclude, therefore, that the striking difference which is observable in the form of their beds, is owing to an invariable law of nature, which obliges the greater bodies of water to feek the most direct channels; while the smaller and more scanty rivulets are made to wander in various meanders, and circuitous fweeps; fpreading fertility, and refreshing the plains with their moisture. And in this, as in every other part of the creation, we fee the bounty of Providence most amply manifested; for had the great rivers been decreed to wander like the smaller, they would have encroached too much on the land; while the current being confiderably retarded, would have rendered them more liable to overflow their banks, and less able to drain the smaller streams, and low grounds, of the superabundance of water in high floods. Again, if the tributary streams, and small branches of rivers, had been direct in their courses, they must have poured out their contents with fuch rapidity, that, owing to the greater influx of water from the former, the main rivers would have been still more liable to fudden overflows; while the branches at their outlets, although, from their straightness, better able to drain off the fuperfluous water to the fea, would yet have been rendered less fit for the purposes of navigation, and the convenience of man.

What I have to offer on the subject of the smaller rivers, relates more particularly to the Baugrutty and Islamutty

Is amutty, which I have surveyed: it may, however, be applied, in some measure, to all such as slow through the plains of Bengal.

It has already been shewn, that the encroachments on the banks of the Ganges, which produce insections in the course of that river, are ultimately stopped by the growth of islands; which connecting themselves with the main land, have a tendency to restore a degree of straightness to the channel. The small rivers are liable to the same encroachments on their banks; but as there is not sufficient space between them for islands of any bulk to grow up, the effect is usually very different; for the stream continuing its depredations on the steep side, and depositing earth and sand on the opposite shore, produces in the end such a degree of winding, as, in some instances, would appear almost incredible. I will particularize only a few of the most extraordinary cases I have met with.

The distance from Bulliah to Serampour, two villages on the western bank of the Islamutty, is somewhat less than a mile and a half; in the year 1795, the distance by water was 9 miles, so that, at the ordinary rate of tracking, which seldom exceeds 2 miles in the hour, a boat would be  $4\frac{1}{2}$  hours in going from one place to the other. The river in that space had seven distinct reaches, two of which were of considerable length; and between three others, which nearly formed a triangle, the neck of land which separated the two nearest was only 14 yards\* across; while the distance round exceeded three miles. See Plate II. fig. 1.

HIGHER up this river, the village of Simnautpour is fituated close to a narrow isthmus, across which the distance

<sup>\*</sup> In January 1797 I found this narrow ishmus broke through by the river, and on sounding in the very spot where it had existed, and where the bank had been upwards of 20 feet high, I found 18 feet water. This alteration in the course of the Issamutty saves the traveller upwards of 3 miles. O. Gurukul Kangri University Haridwar Collection. Digitized by S3 Foundation USA

distance is little more than a furlong; and as the village nearly fills the whole space, boats pass one side of it a considerable time before they come to the other; for the distance round is six miles. See Plate II. sig. 2.

But the most extraordinary of all the windings I met with, was near Sibnibas, where this river is projected into six distinct reaches, within the space of a square mile, forming a kind of labyrinth, somewhat resembling the spiral form of the human ear. In this were three necks of land, the broadest of which little exceeded one surlong. See Plate II. sig. 3.

Every person who has travelled by water to the upper provinces, must remember the circuitous course of the Baugrutty river, and the extraordinary twift which it formerly had near Plaffey, and also at Rungamuity, \* and between Cossimbazar and the city of Moorshudabad. Some of these windings have been removed, by cutting canals across the narrow necks of land, and these having been considerably widened and deepened by the stream, are now become the real bed of the river; the old channel being in fuch cases foon blocked up by fands, and frequently by a folid bank across the whole breadth of it. There is, however, no other advantage in making fuch cuts, than that of rendering the paffage somewhat shorter by water; for, in other respects, it is sometimes attended with inconvenience to the natives who inhabit the banks of the rivers, and should never be attempted, but when some valuable buildings, or lands, may be faved by it; and it is a question worth considering, whether by fhortening the course of any river, we may not render it less navigable; for the more a river winds, the flower will be its current, and confequently its waters will not be drained off fo foon. † Another effect

<sup>\*</sup> See Plate III. figs. 1 and 2.

<sup>+</sup> See Mr. Mann's Treatise on Rivers and Canals, in the Philosophical

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effect of the shortening of its course might be, that, owing to the greater rapidity of the current acting against the sides in a loose soil, it might too much enlarge the capacity of its bed, the effect of which would be to produce a proportionable degree of shallowness in the middle of the stream.\* I cannot say that this has been the case at any of the places where cuts have hitherto been made; but it is not improbable that the greater velocity which they give to the current throughout, might produce such an effect in other parts.

THE end which is proposed by cutting such canals, is very often effected by nature alone; for the narrow isthmus between the opposite reaches being gradually straitened by the current washing away the bank on both fides, it becomes at length too slender to refift the pressure of the waters in the rainy season, and is burst open. † This no sooner happens, than the river widens the breach, and foon renders it fufficiently capacious for the passage of the whole of its waters; in which case, the old circuitous channel is abandoned, and being foon shut up at both ends, in the manner pointed out above, continues in the form of a stagnated jeel or pool. I have seen several of these jeels near the banks of the Coffimbazar and Islamutty rivers, fome of which appeared to have existed many years; for they are not fo liable to be filled up as the deferted reaches of the Ganges, whose waters during the high floods are impregnated with a much greater quantity of fand and mud; and as in a hot climate, the effluvia which arife from all ftagnated waters must necessarily infect the air, this reason alone should suffice to deter 115

<sup>\*</sup> The great breadth of the Coffimbazar river at Moorshudabad, is the principal cause of its shallowness at that place.

<sup>+</sup> See Plate II. fig. 1; and the Note in page 25.

† The Motifil lake was formerly one of the windings of the Coffimbazar river.—See Major Rennell's Memoirs. Another of these swamps, or one which might possibly have been a part of that river at some remote period, now exists near Burrampour; and an attempt, though inessection, was lately need to the transfer of the transfer of the same period, and the same possible of the transfer of the same period.

us from anticipating nature in a matter which, with fuch apparent disadvantages, has nothing more to recommend it, than the shortening by a few miles the navigation of a river.

THE reaches of the small rivers are not all equally winding, and liable to change; but some are found to run with tolerable straightness for several miles. fuch parts, their channels appear to have been permanently fettled for ages, and to have every appearance of continuing fo; for the current proceeding at a flow and steady rate, in a direction parallel to the shores, does not encroach upon the banks, which are here generally floping, and firm. The fites of many of the principal towns, and villages, along their banks, have been established on such spots; as Moorshudabad, Churkah, Chowragatchy, Mutyaree, Dyahaut, and fome others on the Baugrutty; and Bungoung, Marole, and Taldahy, on the Islamutty. Nor is it easy to conceive any thing more beautiful than the view of fome of these reaches, particularly where the banks are shaded by large trees, and enriched with temples, gauts, and other buildings, or fometimes clothed with verdure down to the water's edge.

Ar the turning between the several reaches, we frequently find large pools, where the water is considerably deeper, and where also the breadth of the channel is much greater than in other parts. I am inclined to think, that these are not always produced by the mere operation of the current, but are sometimes owing to cavities, or small lakes, which existed before the river, by the shifting of its bed, had worked a passage through them; particularly as in some we find a slat or shelving shore on the concave or outer side of the pool, and a steep jutting point at the opposite angle, which is the very reverse of what is produced by the natural agency of the stream; for in other places we usually find the steep bank deepest water, and consequently the greatest velocity of the

current on the concave fide of the bank, while the opposite shore is shelving, and the water frequently so shallow that boats cannot approach it.

Along the banks of the Issamutty river, and in a few instances in the course of the Baugrutty, the shelving points which are formed at the angles between the reaches, are overrun with thick jungles of long grass, which are the usual haunts of tigers, wild buffaloes, and other animals. But this is more commonly the case along the banks of the former, where the country is not only less cultivated, but where the more intricate windings of that river afford greater shelter to wild beasts.\*

The deepest water in these rivers is usually sound under the high banks, and at the angles between the several reaches; but in the straight reaches, where the banks are sloping, and the river is of a moderate breadth, the greatest depth will always be sound in the middle of the channel. I have frequently sounded upwards of 30 feet in the Issamutty; but these great depths of the stream are of little avail, not being general; for in other parts where that river expands itself over a broad and sandy bed, or where the sishermen drive bamboos, and draw their nets across the channel, obstructing the current, and causing a considerable accumulation of sand, the water frequently shoals to 2 feet, or less. The same causes operate to render the Fellinghy and Baugrutty unnavigable in the dry season, but in a still greater degree, owing to the greater width of their channels.

HAVING now described generally the nature of the small rivers and branches of the Ganges, I shall offer a few

<sup>\*</sup> In these spots, hares, partridges, and other game, abound; but it is difficult or dangerous to attempt to start them without elephants; nor is it necessary to do so, if the object of the sportsman is merely to kill game for his table; for in the vicinity of the plantations, and along the skirts of the jungles, he will frequently find enough to satisfy him, without the danger of encountering a tiger.

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a few hints as to the possibility or practicability of rendering the latter navigable at all seasons, the importance of which object, if it could be attained, must be obvious.

THE principal causes which obstruct the navigation of these rivers, may be reduced to three: first, the quantity of fands which are occasionally thrown into their beds by the Ganges; fecondly, the too great breadth of their channels in fundry parts where there is not a proportionable depth; and thirdly, the cafual obstructions which are thrown in the way of the stream by the fishermen. The first of these, it will readily be conceived, can never be prevented; but fo long as these rivers continue to be the outlets of the Ganges, and to drain off a confiderable portion of its waters. there will always be a stream throughout their channels during the whole year, however fcanty it may be in some parts. I have never, at least, known an instance of their being left dry in any part of their beds; excepting the Fellinghy, the old entrance to which, as I have mentioned before, had been entirely shut up, but which continues, notwithstanding, to receive a supply of water from the Culcullia, and to maintain its communication with the Ganges through that channel.

As the shallows which are produced from the causes abovementioned are only partial, affecting only in a small degree, comparatively with their lengths, the channels of these rivers, it might be possible to counteract them in such a manner as to produce a more equal distribution of water; and as the depth which would be requisite for boats of a moderate burthen is inconsiderable, perhaps it might be effected with much less labour and expence, than might at first be imagined.

I was led to this supposition, from frequently seeing that the mere operation of dragging by force a boat,

or budgerow, through any of the shallows, tended, by stirring up the sands, to deepen the channel. If, therefore, round or slat-bottomed boats can produce fuch an effect, in how much greater a degree might it not be done by means of a machine constructed for the purpose, which might be dragged to and fro through the shallow place, until a sufficient depth of water should be obtained for the paffage of boats. If fuch machines, which might be contrived fomewhat in the form of a large iron rake, and occasionally to go on wheels, were to be stationed at the several villages, or towns, in the vicinity of the shallows, it is possible that the Zemeendars might be induced, for a moderate confideration, to furnish people, or cattle, to put them in motion, whensoever it might be necesfary. \*

WITH regard to the too great breadth of the channel, it would not so easily be remedied; but as the shallows which are produced from this cause, are sew in number, and are only to be met with in some of the long reaches, as at Moorshudabad, and Bulleah, it would be worth while to try how far, by filling up a part of the channel, we could prevent the expansion of the stream; and, by confining it within certain limits, could accelerate the motion and depth of the water.

THE last cause of accumulation of fand and shallowness, might be prevented, by prohibiting the natives from driving bamboos across the channel for the purposes of fishing; as they have many other ways of catching fish, without detriment to the navigation of these rivers.

II. On

<sup>\*</sup> Since this paper was written, a proposal has been submitted to the Government, by the Author, for attempting to keep open the Cossimbazar river, or Jellinghy, during the dry feafon.

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II.

## ON SINGHALA, OR CEYLON,

AND THE

## Doctrines of Bhooddha;

FROM THE BOOKS OF THE SINGHALAIS.

BY

#### CAPTAIN MAHONY.

A CCORDING to the opinions of the Singhalais, and from what appears in their writings, the universe perished ten different times, and by a wonderful operation of nature was as often produced a-new. For the government of the world at those different periods, there were 22 Bhooddhas, a proportionate number of whom belonged to each period. Besides this, the Singhalais affert, from record, the total destruction and regeneration of the universe many other times; the written authorities for which are no longer to be found.

For the government of the present universe, which is to be considered in addition to those above stated, sive Bhooddhas are specified; sour of whom have already appeared;—Kakoosandeh Bhooddha, Konagammeh B—, Kaserjeppeh B—, and Gautemeh B—; and the fifth, Maitree B—, is still to come. This last Bhooddha will be born of a Braminee woman: and though the place of a Bhooddha is now vacant in the world, yet there exists a Sahampattu Maha Brachma, or Supreme of all the Gods, who has it under his peculiar guidance. The last of the above-mentioned sour Bhooddhas (Gautemeh B—) is the one whose religion now prevails in Ceylon, and of whom it is here intended to make some mention.

THE WORD BHOODDHA, in the Palee and Singhalai languages, implies, Univerfal Knowledge or Holiness; also a Saint superior to all the Saints, even to the God MAHA BRACHMA; and is understood in these various senses by the natives of Ceylon.

THE BHOODDHISTS speak of 26 heavens, which they divide in the following manner.

1st, The Deveh Loke, consisting of 6: 2d, the Brachmah Loke, consisting of 16; 5 of which are considered as Triumphant Heavens: and 3d, the Arroopeh Loke, consisting of 4: They say of the virtuous, "That they do not enjoy the reward of their good deeds, until after having repeatedly died, and appeared as often in the six sirst heavens, called Deveh Loke; in order to be born again; in the world, to great wealth and consequence: and having, at length, enjoyed a fore taste of bliss in the 11 inferior Brachmah Lokes, they ascend the 5 superior Brachmah Lokes, or Triumphant Heavens; where transmigration ends, and where they enjoy the sulf-

BHOODDHA, before his appearance as man, was a God, and the Supreme of all the Gods. At the folicitations of many of the Gods he descended on earth, and was frequently born as a man, in which character he exercised every possible virtue, by extraordinary instances of self-denial and piety. He was at length born of Mahamaya Devee, after a pregnancy of 10 months, and had for father Sooddodeneh Raja. He lived happily with his queen Yassodera, and 40,000 concubines, for 31 years. The fix next he passed in the midst of wildernesses, qualifying himself to be a Bhooddha. At the close of this period, his calling became manifest to the world, and he vol. vii.

<sup>\*</sup> In the kingdom or country called Dumba Deeva, Madda Defe, and the city of Kimbool wat pooree.

EXERCISED his functions as BHOODDHA for 45 years. He died in Coofeemarapooree, at the Court of MALLELEH RAJA, Tuesday, the 15th of May; from which period the BHOODDHA WAROOSEH, or æra of BHOODDHA, is dated, which now (A. C. 1797) amounts to 2339 years.

BHOODDHA is not, properly speaking, considered as a God, but as having been born man, and in the end of time arrived at the dignity of a Вноордна, on account of his great virtues, and extraordinary good qualities. The title of Bhooddha was not conferred on him by any Superior Power; he adopted it by his own fovereign will, in the fame manner as he became man, both of which events were predicted ages before. BHOODDHA, after his death, afcended to the Hall of Glory, called Mooktzé, otherwise Nirgoowané, which is a place above, and exceeding in magnificence, the 26th heaven; there he will live for ever, in happiness, and incorruptibility, never to be born again in the world; where his doctrine is at prefent extant, and will continue in all its fplendour for 5000 years, according to his own prophecy. Long after the lapse of this period of 5000 years, another Вноордна, named Maitree Вноордна, will be born: the direction or vicegerency of MAHA BRACHMA, who, as the Supreme of all the Gods, has the particular guardianship of the world, will cease after an infinite number of ages, when the universe will perish, and another fucceed to it. MAHA BRACHMA will then advance by degrees through 17 heavens, which are above the 9, in the uppermost of which he now refides, until he at length acquires all the qualifications to become a Вноордна.

The learned Singhalais do not acknowledge, in their writings, a Supreme Being, prefiding over, and the author of the universe. They advert only to a Sahampattee Maha Brachma, who is the first and Supreme of all the Gods, and say, that he, as well as the host

host of Gods inferior to him, and their attendants, have neither slesh or bones, nor bodies possessing any degree of consistency, though apparently with hair on their heads, and teeth in their mouths: and their skins are impregnated with the most luminous and brilliant qualities.—They affert a first Cause, however, under the vague denomination of Nature.

In support of their denial of a Supreme Power, who created heaven and earth, they urge, "that if there existed such a creator, the world would not perish, and be annihilated; on the contrary, he would be careful to guard it in safety, and preserve it from corruptibility." In the first instance, Bhooddha interferes in the government of the world; next to him, Sahampattee Maha Brachma; and afterwards the respective Gods, as they are, by their relative qualifications, empowered.

The world, fay they, perished frequently in former times, and was produced a-new by the operations of the above power: Gods and men from the same source. The latter, on dying, ascend the six Inserior Heavens, or Deveh Loke; are judged according to their merits, by one of the most inserior Gods, name Yammeh Raja, in the lower heaven, Pavenirm Mitchwasseh warteyeh, and regenerate of themselves, on the earth, either as men or brutes; which regeneration continues until they arrive at the Brachmah Loke, or the Heavens of the Superior Gods; and so on, by degrees, at the Triumphant Heavens, until they at length reach the Supreme Heaven, or Arroopeh Loke. Properly speaking, transmigration takes place with those only who ascend the Deveh Loke.

IN the manifested Doctrine of BHOODDHA, there is no mention of created souls. The learned treat but of a breath of life in man, which they compare to a leech, that first attaches itself to a body

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with its fore part, previous to giving up his hold with the hinder part. Therefore they fay, "the body does not die before this breath of life has fixed itself in another, whether from a fore-know-ledge of its being about to ascend the heavens, or to undergo the pains of everlasting or temporary damnation in hell." That which is termed the breath of life, is deemed "immortal."

The Singhalais speak not further of what is understood by us under the term of Paradise, than that there is a place reserved for the blessed, free from all sin, sull of all joy, glory and contentment. But Nirgowané, otherwise called Mooktzé, signifying a Hall of Glory, where the deceased Bhooddhas are supposed to be, is, according to the testimony of Gautement Bhooddha, situated, as already noticed, above the highest or 26th heaven, Neweh Sanja Jatténé, the seat of the most perfect and supreme bliss. Hell, on the contrary, is supposed to be beneath the lowest extremity of the earth, with waters again beneath it, where the most dreadful tempests rage without intermission.

The earth, or this world, called Manoofpeh Loke, and the Inferior Heaven, Katoormaha Rajee Keyeh, are under the fub-direction of the God Sakkereh: he again delegates his authority to four other Gods immediately subjected to him, who respectively guard the four quarters, or four parts, into which the Singhalais, in their system, divide the earth. Dirtheh Rashtereh presides over the East, called Poorweh Weedeseyeh: Weeroodhe', the South, Jamboodweepeeh: Weeroodak Serreh, the West, Apperengodaneh: and Wayserreh Wenneh, the North, Octoorookooroo Dewehinneh. None but Gods can pass from any of these worlds, or divisions of the world, to the other. One comprises our known earth of Europe.

rope, Afia, Africa, and America, and is termed by them, Jamboodweepeh. Each is supposed to be reflected upon by a precious stone in the heavens, through the medium of which, the fun and moon emit their lustre: the blue sapphire is ascribed to ours; the white fapphire, ruby, and topaz, to the other three. A principal duty of these Gods, is, to guard their fuperior God, SAKKEREH, against the machinations of his chief and most powerful enemy, the God WE'PE'-CHITTEE ASSOCREENDREHYA, who resides beneath the Sea, in a lower world, termed Affoorehloke. follows their care to the parts of the world confided to them. On the day of the new moon, that of the first quarter, and on the full, they inquire by their fervants, their male children, and latterly by themselves, into the conduct of mankind; the refult of which inquiries they report to the great council of SAKKEREH. confisting of himself and 32 members, (inferior Gods:) the extremes of good and bad report of the conduct of mortals, are causes of the utmost concern, or most unbounded joy, to this affembly.

THE Singhalais affert, as manifested by BHOODDHA, that there are 120,535 inferior Gods belonging to the lower heavens and the earth; besides innumerable Kombaendeyos, or angels; but the former, as well as the latter, are subject to the control of superior Gods. They arrange the characters in their mythology as follows:

1ft, Bhooddha,

2d, Maha Brachma,

3d, Sakkereh,

4th, Sakkereh's 32 Counfellors,

5th, The 4 Gods, guardians of the 4 quarters of the world,

6th, The other inferior Gods of the heavens,

7th, Kombaendeyos, or angels,

8th, The Gods who reside on earth, and their servants.

DIEPANKEREH BHOODDHA was one of the 22 BHOODDHAS formerly alluded to, and held the first rank among them. His name is frequently mentioned in the books now extant among the Singhalais, and they, from many considerations, hold him in peculiar veneration. He was samed for the uncommon beauty of his person; and the followers of the true doctrine were more numerous in his days, than during the government of other BHOODDHAS in those remote periods.

GAUTEMEH BHOODDHA is acknowledged by the Singhalais, to be the same holy character termed by the Siamese, Sommonokodom, and Pootisat. Sommono Gautemen is, however, according to the former, the proper mode or writing the first appellation. Sommono in the Palee language implies a renowned Saint, whose garb, as well as his actions, marks his character: In many senses it is synonimous with Bhooddha. Gatuimen, or Gautimo, (as it is occasionally pronounced by those from whom I caught the sound,) is a proper name, pertaining to a person of ancient and illustrious descent. Bhooddisat, or Poodisatweyo, is a title given to those in heaven destined to become Bhooddhas.

The Palee is the language in which Bhooddha is faid to have preached his doctrine, and manifested his law. This language is also termed, by the learned Singhalais, the Magedee and Moola Basha; basha being the Singhalais for language. The principal and most holy code among the Singhalais, and that which may be termed their Bible, appears to be the Abidarmeh Pitékeh Sattappré Karranee. This book is written in the above dialect, and may be had at the capital of Candia: at least it is in the possession of the learned there. A priest of the religion of Bhooddha, whom I questioned concerning the Vedas and Pooraans of the Hindoos, and whether the book just mentioned had any relation to them, replied, "The Vedas are books

"in the possession of, and taught by, the Brahmines: they contain the principles of every science, but treat not of theology. We possess many books of the same tendency, and equally prosound, in the Palee language, some of which have been translated into the Singhalais. We have no knowledge of the Pooraans." I then urged the real contents of the Vedas, that they were interspersed with speculations on metaphysics, and discourses on the being and attributes of God, and were considered of divine origin: of the Pooraans, I added, that they comprised a variety of mythological histories, from the creation to the incarnation of Bhooddha.

Any further acquaintance with these books, than what has been already mentioned, was disclaimed. But as to the supposed incarnation of Bhooddha, "The " Hindoos (rejoined the Priest) must surely be little "acquainted with this subject, by their allusion to "only one. Вноордна, if they mean Вноордна "DHERMA RAJA, became man, and appeared as fuch " in the world at different periods, during ages, before 66 he had qualified himself to be a Bhooddha. These " various incarnations took place by his own fupreme " will and pleafure, and in confequence of his fu-" perior qualifications and merits. I am therefore in-" clined to believe, that the Hindoos, who thus speak " of the incarnation of a Bhooddha, cannot allude "to him whose religion and law I preach, and who is " now a resident of the Hall of Glory, situated above " the 26th heaven."

The temples of Bhooddha are properly called Booddestaneh, Siddestaneh, and Maleegawa. These epithets are, however, seldom used, when speaking of such places: Vihare, and Viharagee, which strictly mean the habitations of the priests, that are always built close to the temples dedicated to Bhooddha, are the most general.

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THE religion of BHOODDHA, as far as I have had any infight into it, feems to be founded in a mild and fimple morality. BHOODDHA has taken for his principles, Wifdom, Juffice, and Benevolence; from which principles emanate Ten Commandments, held by his followers as the true and only rule of their conduct. He places them under three heads; thought, word, and deed; + and it may be faid, that the spirit of them is becoming, and well fuited to him, whose mild nature was first shocked at the facrifice of cattle. These Commandments comprise what is understood by the moral law, which has been generally preached by all the BHOODDHAS in different countries, but chiefly by the last, or GAUTEMEH BHOODDHA, in the empire of Raja GAHA NOOWEREH. They are contained in a Code of Laws written in the Palee language, called Dikfangeeyeh.

THE BHOODDHISTS have prayers adapted to circumftances, which are used privately in their houses, and publicly in presence of the congregation. They were first recorded by the King WATTER GEMMOONOO ABE-YENAJEH, as regularly handed down from BHOODDHA, in whose days the art of writing was not known. BHOODDHISTS are obliged to pray three times a day; about 5 o'clock in the morning, at noon, and towards the fall of night. Their devotions are addressed to BHOODDHA and his RAHATOONS, (Apostles,) with a religious respect for his Code of Laws, and the relics both of him and the RAHATOONS. The refrect afforded to the relics, is in memory of the characters to which they belonged, without afcribing to them any fupernatural virtue. Four days in the month are dedicated to public worthip, the four first days of the changes of the moon, when those who are able attend at the temples. There are no other public days of festival or thankfgiving: all are, however, at liberty

Waak, Kayeh.

<sup>\*</sup> Singalese. Bhooddha, Dermah, Sangeh.

† Singalese. Hittenema, Keeyenema, Kerrenema.—Palee. Manneshet,
Waak, Kayeh.

to felect fuch day for themselves, and this they particularize by acts of devotion, consisting in fasting, prayer, and forming resolutions for their suture good conduct; all which devout acts are addressed to their Saviour BHOODDHA, &c.

It is customary for the pious, who attend at the temples more regularly, to make offerings at the altar. Before the hour of 11 A. M. dressed victuals may be introduced, but not after that hour; slowers only can then be presented. The victuals are generally eaten by the priests or their attendants, and form a principal part of their resources.

THERE is one character in the church superior to all, who is distinguished by name, and the duties of his office: he is stiled Damman Canden Maha Nayeken.

During the reign of the Portuguese in Ceylon, the religion of BHOODDHA was much perfecuted, and became in confequence neglected, and almost unknown, even to its votaries. When the Dutch conquered the island, greater liberties being granted to the followers of Bhooddha, the priefts acquired fome degree of light, and, with the affillance of learned men, fent from Siam, religion again began to flourish. The high prieft, about this time, was a person of extensive. learning and great piety. In the former he exceeded the very men sent from Siam to instruct him. His fuperior talents gained him the title of SREEHNAN-KEREH SANGA RAJA, which was granted him by the King of Siam and his high priest conjointly, and confirmed by the King of Candia. Since the death of SANGA RAJA, there has been no person of his rank; none having been found of fufficient learning. For the ordination of a priest, a council is assembled, confifting of the high priest, with thirty others of learning,

and the two ministers of state. The person intended for orders, being previously examined, and deemed, in every respect, fit to fill the character of priest, is introduced into this affembly, and then asked, if willing to conform to the different duties required of him; and whether he defires ardently to enter into holy orders. On answering in the affirmative, he is stripped of the clothes he wore at entering; and receives, from the hands of two priests, the robes belonging to his new character. He is before this vested with inferior rank and powers, which can be granted by the generality of Temples; but before this council only, an he be made a prieft, or Terrunasseh. He must be perfect in all his limbs, and not under twenty years of age; in addition to which, good conduct and learning are the only requifites for priesthood. A priest is bound to celibacy: but when any one wishes no longer to continue in orders, he has it at his option to refign, at a meeting of the priefts of his diffrict, which takes place monthly, either at the new or full moon; fometimes at both. Quitting orders in this manner is not deemed a difgrace; but to be difmissed for improper conduct, is looked upon as the greatest of all ignominy. Various are the modes by which they incur guilt: among fuch, the killing, even a fly; connexion, or a wish for such, with women; any use of strong liquor; theft, of the most harmless kind, or a lie, may be principally noted. They can cat once or twice a day, according to the promife made at ordaining: it is necessary, however, that their meals should be between fun rife and 11 o'clock A. M. After the latter hour no priest can eat, but may drink. The priests of BHOODDHA live upon charity, and by their law, are allowed to eat of every species of food offered to them in that way. Was a prieft, however, to enter a house, and a fowl to be killed purposely for him, then would he be culpable: for the law of Bhooddha forbids the killing of any animal. The BHOODDHISTS of Ceylon never eat of beef; but the prohibition, if such may be deemed the cause, CC-0. Gurukul Kangri University Haridwar Collection. Digitized by S3 Foundation USAtains

pertains not to their religion. A certain King of Ceylon, at a remote period, is faid to have iffued a mandate to that effect, in consequence of the unusual expenditure of butter he had occasion for, to celebrate a festival of thanksgiving to BHOODDHA: the allowing of a cow to be killed, was, by that order, death to the owner, though he had no share in the act. Such, the Singhalais say, was the earliest cause of the above custom; which, however, is ascribed by many to their gratitude towards the animal. Be this as it may, they certainly refrain from the use of such food as strictly as the Hindoos, with this difference in their prejudices, that they have no objection to feeing, or touching, the flesh of a cow; nor do they object to the use we make of it. The King is, in general, obliged to confult with the high priest on all matters of moment. His advice is frequently taken, and fecrets communicated to him, when the ministers are neither confulted nor trufted.

A species of confirmation is enjoyed by the law of Bhoodha, termed Sarana Sieleh. The ceremony is short, and simple. It includes nothing more than a confession of, and a formal introduction into, the faith; which is concluded by a blessing from the priest, expressing his wishes that Bhoodha, his Rahatoons, and doctrine, may be the means of everlasting happiness to the person initiated.

MATRIMONY (called in Singhalais, Magooleh, and in Palee, Kalianeh Mangalleh) takes place in the following manner:

The parents, on both fides, go alike, to demand a husband or wife for their child. If the parties agree, a day is fixed upon, when the relations assemble in the house of the bridegroom, to repair together to that of the bride. Previous to setting out, the man sends the woman a complete assortment

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of necessaries for dress: also to the mother, a piece of white cloth, and one of the same description to the washerwoman. He likewise seven Kaddehs\* of different forts of eatables; and a Taddeh, which is called Geeramool Taddeh,† containing a branch of ripe Plantains,‡ with a variety of victuals; a box for Beetlenut; one for Chunam; a species of Scissars,\*\* to cut the Beetlenut; and the requisite quantity of Chunam.††

ALL those articles being fent to the house of the female, the parties already mentioned repair there. A large table is placed in the center of the room, covered over with a white cloth, called Magool porooweh; both extremities of the apartment are in like manner ornamented with cloth. The company, confifting of relations only, having entered, the young couple advance towards each other from opposite ends of the room; the female attended by a younger brother, whose deficiency is to be supplied by another relation beneath her in years. The man and woman having met in the center of the room; the brother, or relation, accompanying the woman, washes the right foot of the intended husband; and the latter puts a gold ring on a finger of the hand with which he is washed. Then the two uncles, or next nearest relations to the contracting parties, tie a thread round the little fingers of their right hands, thus uniting them; after which, the new married woman dreffes herfelf in the clothes her husband had fent her.

THE father and mother of the bride make seven presents to the bridegroom, viz. an upper dress, called, by the Singhalais, Jouan hettee; ‡ a bonnet:

+ Geeramool fignifies, principal or of chief note: and Taddeh, a burthen carried by two or four.

A load carried in the stile of bangee, suspended to the extremities of a bamboo. Magool Kadd signifies, the burthens (viands) for the feast.

<sup>†</sup> Kehelken. || Boolat payeh. & Keeloté. \*\* Geeré. †† Hoonoo. CC-0. Gurukul Kangri Ppiversityi Haridwarl Gollaction Picitized by BB Fourfield tidle USA, reaching the elbow; the body part as far down as the navel.

net; \* a ring; † a cloth to be worn below; † a firelock; 22 buttons for his drefs; a pin, \*\* fuch as they use, with a small knife at one end, either of gold or filver.

## EXTRACT FROM THE MAHA RAJA WAL-LIEH, A SINGHALAIS HISTORY.

#### CHAPTER VI.

To the right of the Bogaha treet lies a country called Kalleengoo Rattehgooratteh, where there reigned a King named KALLINGOO RAJE. He had a daughter, whom he gave in marriage to the Emperor of Waggooratteh, stiled WAGGOO RAJE. The Empress, his wife, being brought to bed of a daughter, he called together the aftrologers, to calculate her deftiny: and it was decreed by them, that however careful the Emperor might be of her fafety, this daughter, when arrived at maturity, would be taken away from him by a Lion.

THE Emperor, alarmed at the intelligence, hastened to fecure the Princess by every possible means. He placed about her person numberless servants; and, for greater fafety, caused her to be bred up in an apartment furrounded by guards.

IT

<sup>\*</sup> Toppich. This word, I imagine, they borrowed from the Portuguese. † Moodehirrooweh. ‡ Gindangehtoopotieh. § Bottams. \*\* Oolkatoopihieh. Tooakooweh.

<sup>++</sup> This is the tree the Siamese call Prass Maha Pout: it is held alike sacred by them and the Singhalais. The latter term it, by way of excellence, Sree Maha Boden Wahangfé. It was against this tree that BHOODDHA leaned, when he first took upon himself his divine character. A branch of the original tree is faid to have been brought to Ceylon in a miraculous manner, and planted at Annooradhepooreh Noowereh; where to this day a tree of that description is worthipped, and thought to possess extraordinary virtues. The Bogaha, or tree of BHOODDHA, is that, I think, called in the Hindoostan, the Peopul, (Ficus Religiofa,) a species of banian, with heart-like and pointed leaf. The Singhalais, when defcribing the different countries they pretend to a knowledge of, make this tree the central point, and determine the polition of the place by its relative fituation. Digitized by S3 Foundation USA

It happened, one night, that this Princess took the opportunity of her attendants fleeping, to evade their vigilance, and make her escape; which she did by opening the door of her apartment, and getting out on the terrace: from thence she jumped into the ftreet. This ftreet being a place of general refort for merchants, the chanced to fall in with fome perfons of that description, who were just setting out for a distant country, and joined them. Having reached the land of Ladeh Defeh, in their passage through a thick wood, a Lion darted out, and caused all to run off, except the Princess, who felt herself unable to move. She was feized by the Lion, who carried her to the furthest extremity of the wood; where he lived with her till she produced two children; the first a fon, and then a daughter.

WHEN those children had acquired the age of reafon, they used frequently to consider among themfelves, how it came to pass that their father differed fo widely in features from their mother and them, and at length addressed their mother on the subject. She informed them, that their father was a Lion: and on being again, asked whence it came that they had a Lion for father, she replied, by making them acquainted with the whole of her ftory, which the fon had no fooner heard, than he began to confider on the means of escaping from this place, with his mother and fifter. Occupied with this idea, he one day followed his father, to observe where he went, and for what purpose: he saw that he made very considerable bounds, and travelled upwards of 150 leagues; the next time, therefore, that his father fet out on a like excursion, he carried away his mother and fifter. They fled towards the country of his mother, where her brother reigned, having succeeded his father, and on their arrival, were received by the King with every demonstration of joy.

The Lion, at his return home, was extremely afflicted at the loss of his wife and children, and shortly after became furious. Having scented out the track they had taken, he soon arrived in the neighbourhood of the place where they resided, and began by attacking and killing every person he met with. The inhabitants assembled, and carried their complaints to the King, of a Lion that insested the country, and put all to death that came in his way. The King, in consequence of this representation, ordered a number of people to be sent out in pursuit of the Lion; but their efforts were of no avail: his tremendous roar instilled dismay into all who attempted to approach him; and such as he was able to lay hold of, he instantly killed.

THE King then declared publicly his determination to share his kingdom and treasures with the person who would put this Lion to death; upon which the very fon of the Lion avowed himself a candidate for the reward, and pledged himself to kill him. Taking with him his bow and arrows, he repaired to the place where the Lion was; and the moment he perceived him, let fly an arrow that pierced his right fore leg: but the Lion hearing then the voice of his fon, was infensible of pain. A second arrow entering the left leg, worked up his rage, and he was about to vent it, when a third arrow passed through his head, and brought him to the ground. In falling, he called out, "Ah, my fon!" and defired him to approach, which the fon doing, he placed his head on his knees, and during his last groans, uttered expressions fraught with tenderness for his wife and daughter, to whom he charged his fon to convey them: he then expired.

THE fon cut off his head; and taking it with him to the palace, presented it to the King; who, according to promise, shared his kingdom and treasure with him.

In a part of the country that came to his share, lay that of Ladeh Desen, where his mother had formerly been taken off by the Lion. Here he built a magnificent palace, and afterwards gave to the whole of his possessions, the name of Singhéba Noowerch; and having become King, he took the name of Singhéba\* Rajaroowo, and gave to his sister, whom he married, that of Singhe' Wallee Commaree.

This Queen had iffue fixteen times, at each of which the brought forth two fons. Her first came into the world under the planet Mooweh Sreefeh Nékéteh; the hour of his birth was termed Gooroogeh Horaweh, and he received the name of VILEE SINGHE'BA COMMAROO. The fame day were also born 700 male children in the kingdom of Singhéba Noowerch. These 700 children, when arrived at manhood, became the conftant companions of VIJEE SINGE'BA CAMMAROO; and in concert with him, were the fource of much disturbance in the country. The inhabitants united in complaining to the King of the improper conduct of his fon; which led to the difgrace of the young Prince; and fo irritated his father, that he ordered him to leave his dominions.

VIJEE SINGHE'BA COMMAROO called together his 700 companions, and having explained to them his father's injunctions, they unanimously agreed to follow his fortune to some distant land. They accordingly all put to sea, in a vessel which the King permitted to be got ready for the occasion.

AFTER having been at sea a considerable time, they at length discovered the high land of Ceylon, called Sammanalleh Sree Padé, † and concluding

<sup>\*</sup> Singhéba means Lion tailed; Singhalai, Lion raced; the termination lai, being the Singhalais for blood.

† Adam's Peak.

ding, that beneath there must be an extensive and fertile plain, it was determined to steer for it. They shortly after came to an anchor, and landed at a place to which they gave the name of Tammeneh Totteh.\* Here they found a tree, called Noogeh gaha, under which they sheltered and rested themselves.

BEFORE the birth of BHOODDHA, the island of Ceylon was known by the name of Sree Lankaweh. In former times there was a mighty war in this island, termed Rawena Jooddé; after which it continued void of population for a term of 1845 years; being entirely overrun by malignant Spirits. BHOODDHA was then born; and, in due time, took on himself his holy character. He refided in the Empire of RAJA GAHA Nooweren, near to the temple called Wéloo Wama Ramée. From thence he observed, with concern, that so fine a country should be a prey to evil Spirits and Demons; and determined on expelling them from it. He arrived in the island, for that purpose, on a Thursday (Brahaspotinda) in the month of January (Doorootoo) when the planet Rossée Nekéteh presided; and took up his residence at a place called Mayan Gannee.

Here follows an account of the holy labours of Bhooddha, during the three vifits he is supposed to have paid Ceylon; whereby he almost totally extirpated, or banished to distant countries, the evil genii's that had infested the island. I have said almost, as it appears Vijee Singhe'ba first married a semale Demon, through whose means he was able to overcome the sew that remained in Ceylon, after their first great overthrow by Bhooddha. I add the following particulars of his last visit.

VOL. VII.

D

Вноордна

BHOODDHA returned for the third time to Ceylon, fifteen years after his first visit. He arrived on the day of the full moon of Esselh, (July,) when the planet Ootra Saleh Nekketing presided. He visited fixteen different places in a Garda, (minute,) placed his foot on the Sammanelleh Sree Padé, and from thence ascended to Heaven, where he instructed the angels and apostles, and told them that his doctrines, or law, would exist in the world for 5500\* years: and as the doctrines of three other Bhooddhas had prevailed in Ceylon previous to its being overrun by evil Spirits, therefore was it that his was to be then promulgated there.

BHOODDHA afterwards addressed himself to Sek-KEREH DEVEE ENDRYA, saying, "I cede unto you the "island of Ceylon. A Prince of the name of VIJEE "SINGHE'BA COMMAROO will arrive there, with 700 "followers," and giving him a thread and some blessed water, he added, "You will sprinkle all those people "with this water, and tie the thread round the Prince's "neck." He then called for an apostle named Mi-HENDOO TERROONASSE'E, and said to him, "You will "establish my law in the island of Ceylon."

Which BHOODDHA had ordered to be tied round his neck, is faid to have accomplished extraordinary deeds during the first days of his arrival; and afterwards to have been thereby enabled to transform into a rock, the female Demon, Cowe'nee Jackinee, then his wise; that he might marry the Princess he had solicited for his Queen from the King of Pandoowas ratteh, and who had then arrived with

<sup>\* 5000</sup> is the period mentioned in every other document I have feen on the subject.

<sup>†</sup> Said to be on the Coast of Coromandel.

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of the 700 men that had accompanied the Prince to Ceylon.

VIJEE SINGHE'BA COMMAROO, after his marriage with the daughter of the King of Pandoowas ratteh, was crowned by the name of VIJEE SINGHE'BA RAJA ROOWO; and gave to his kingdom the name of Tammenam noowereh. This was the first establishment in Ceylon, after the period formerly mentioned of 1845 years, during which it is said to have been overrun by Demons, &c.

h dates from a period of 622 year

DEWENEEPETISSEH RAJA is the first King of Ceylon who embraced the religion of Bhooddha. Being fully instructed and versed in the law, he received the baptism of Bhooddha, called Saraneh Sieleh, in the presence of the apostle Mihendoo.

DEWENEEPETISSEH RAJA was the ninth King, after VIJEE RAJA. The arrival of the latter in Ceylon is mentioned in many authorities to have happened feven days after the ascension of BHOODDHA. However, others will have it, the Dutch particularly, that the event took place 350 years after the birth of our Saviour; and another class, Christian Natives on Ceylon, that VIJEE RAJA was crowned feventy-feven years after the birth of our Saviour. It would be vain to attempt reconciling those various opinions; nor, indeed, can it be attempted, but through the medium of their respective authorities, with a knowledge of the language Those concerning BHOODDHA are, I imagine, the only records that can be fought after with any probability of real advantage to general Chronology: but still it is to be quef-

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tioned, how far this BHOODDHA is the one of the Hindoos. The Singhalais have two æras: one. that already described of BHOODDHA; the other, the Sokken, or Sakerajeh Waroo-SEH, which dates from a period of 623 years after the ascension of BHOODDHA; the last æra stands now at 1718. In all public papers that come from the Court of Candia, it is usually observed, that both are inserted. The Sakeh Waroofeh alludes to a date, at which there raged a famine in the island of Ceylon. This the writers of that time attributed to the impiety of the Emperor KOODA WALLEH GAMBA RA-JA Roowo, whose neglect of the religion of Внооррна, is related in the Maha Raja Wallieh. A like event is faid to have taken place about the same time on the continent of India, owing to the murder of a Brahmin, by a King named SAGEL NOWEREH Raja.

Leawawa, fituated on the east fide of Ceylon, formerly, and for a very confiderable period, furnished a great part of the Candian dominions with falt; nor were any attempts, either of the Portuguese or Dutch, to attack the Candians in this quarter, ever seconded by the inhabitants; who almost on every other occasion evinced a general want of loyalty and patriotism. This fidelity, on the part of the inhabitants, has been owing entirely to the veneration and dread they entertain for the God of Kaddea Gamma, whose temple is situated near to Leawawa.

This God is called by the Singhalais, Kandekoo-Mareyo; faid to have fix heads, twelve hands, &c. &c. and to hold a variety of instruments, which are particularly described. He is represented both in a standing posture, and mounted on a peacock, in the act of slying.—It is said that Bhooddha, happening to be for a few minutes in the Pagoda of Kaddergama, Kande

KANDE KOOMAREYO threw himself at his feet, and obtained from him extraordinary powers; which, among other things, enable him to cure all diseases, particularly those of the blood royal, and to perform various other miracles. BHOODDHA, at the same time, enjoined that he should not receive divine honors; and those which are now offered up at his temple, have been introduced by degrees, with the veneration originally decreed him. There is a temple built to him in the capital of the Candian dominions, but it is confidered as very inferior to that abovementioned. This has a variety of civil officers, but no priefts, belonging to it. There is one great festival here in the year, which takes place on the day of the new moon in July: it concludes after a grand procession, (during which fome miraculous circumstances are supposed to have taken place,) with a variety of rich prefents; a certain part of which are fent to the King of Candia. shall particularly detail this ceremony on a future occasion. It may prove curious to mention, that BHOODD-HISTS, Musselmans, Brahmins, and Hindoos, of every description, attend this temple on all public occasions. The head officers are fliled, Mahabitmeh ralehammee, Koodabitmeh ralehammee, and Basnaikeh ralehammee. Then follow Maha Kapooraleh, and Koodah Kapooraleh.

Some learned Hindoos, whom I lately met on Ceylon, from their fuperior respect for Kande Koomareyo, expressed themselves highly indignant at the above ceremonies, but more particularly at the inferior character the God is supposed by the Bhoode-Hists to posses. This temple, they added, was held by them as the savourite one belonging to this God, and was therefore annually visited by great numbers of Hindoos. Of Kande Koomareyo, they gave me the following account.—"Scand Coomaura" (according to the Sanscrit, the proper way of writing the

name) " is confidered in the Hindoo mythology as " the fecond Son of SEVA, and faid to have fprung " from an affemblage of rays, emitted from his divine " eyes; when, though immaterial and immortal, for "the purpose of bleffing the heavenly hosts, he ap-66 peared under a visible or corporeal figure, on the 66 fummit of his Paradife, and Silver Mountain, called "Kylaufum. SEVA was brought by angels to create " this Son out of his divine rays, in consequence of " their cousins, three Assoras, or giants, named Soo-" RAPADMA, TARAHNA, and SIMHA VAKTRA, having "imprisoned a vast number of angels in their cities, " fituated in the midst of oceans. Those Assoras had, " by mortification and facrifice, fo pleafed SEVA with their faith and confidence in him, that they obtained "unufual bleffings, and were invefted with the power " of governing the 1008 Bramhaundas, or Macro-" cosms, each containing an affemblage of 14 regions, " celestial and terrestrial. They were likewise blessed "with a wishing chariot, called Indra yannam, by the "extraordinary virtues of which, they were enabled "to furvey the universe in one day. In order then " to destroy the above tyrannic giants, sprung forth " rays from the luminous eyes of Seva, which rays " affumed a form of fix heads and twelve hands. "SCANDA, OF SCANDU COMAURA, fignifies a child "born of rays, emitted, or sprung forth, from the " Supreme Being."

<sup>&</sup>quot;He bears numerous names; fuch as SOOBRAM"HANYA, GOOHA COOMAURA, &c. &c. owing to
"feveral miraculous offices performed by him. He,
"by order of Seva, made an expedition against the
"cities of the abovementioned great giants; and hav"ing warred fuccessfully against them, extirpated the
"whole race. In a word, the eldest of the giants, hav"ing lost his monstrous figure, divided himself into
"two

<sup>\*</sup> Bramhaunda means literally, the great egg, but is fynonymons to CC-0. Gurukul Kangri University: Haridwaft, Collectiona Digitized by 3th and undation USA

two parts, under two different shapes; the Peacock, and the Fowl: the former served Scanda Coomaura to ride on; the latter, as his standard: hence
these two birds are sacred to him. At his return
from the kingdoms of giants, Vishnoo, and other
Deities that accompanied Scanda Coomaura, intreated him to halt on the summit of a mountain,
where they then placed a gemmed throne, on which
he sat, and touched the ground with the sole of one
of his divine seet. Hence that mountain became
holy, bearing the name of Cadeer Caumam, which
literally signifies a mountain radiant in beams and
seems, then sound in the sountain there."

HAVING always conceived, from what I had an opportunity of reading and hearing, that BHOODDHA was one of the nine Avataurams, and that, netwithstanding his having contradicted, in his doctrines, some of the most essential points in the divine authorities of the Hindoos, his praises were nevertheless fung by some of the first order of Brahmins; I stood forth in afferting his dignity to the persons abovementioned; when I was informed, that he was not included in the nine Avataurs. They were as follows: VARANHA, NAURASINHA, COORMA, MATSYA, VAU-MANA, PARASOO-RAAMA, DASARADHA-RAAMA, BALA-RAAMA, and Krishna. The incarnation of Bhood-DHA, it was added, arose in the following circumstances: "In former ages there were three giants, named "Trepooras, (so entitled from their cities of "iron, brafs, and gold, which cities had wings, and 66 were ambulatory,) who were votaries to SEVA, and " continued to adore his facred emblem, Lingum, fo 46 that they were invincible. They often oppressed 66 the Gods, who having befought VISHNOO, he af-56 fumed a form under the title of BHOODDHA, who " entering the cities, wrought miracles, and preached " his feducing doctrine to the inhabitants, who em"his profelytes. By this stratagem the Trepooras fell into the hands of Bhooddha, and were destroyed by Seva. (These particulars are said to be contained in Scanda poorauna.) Hence Bhooddha is considered as the promulgator of an heterodox resiliation. The adherents to Bhooddha are looked upon as insidels; and their religion, though commendable with respect to morality, yet is reckoned as one of the 339 sects, or branches, of the well-known heresy, or rather schism, among the Hindoos."

III.

### NARRATIVE OF A ROUTE

FROM

## CHUNARGHUR TO YERTNAGOODUM,

IN THE

#### ELLORE CIRCAR.

#### BY CAPTAIN J. T. BLUNT.

THE Government having, in the year 1794, determined to employ me in exploring a route through that part of India which lies between Berar, Orissa, and the northern Circars, some months necessarily elapsed before the requisite Purwannahs, from the Nagpour Government, could be obtained; when, at length, after receiving my instructions, and a party of a Jamadar and thirty Sepoys had been ordered to escort me, I commenced this expedition.

On the 28th of January, 1795, I left Chunarghur, and directing my course a little to the westward, ascended the hills at Jurna gaut; where I entered upon a kind of table land, on which there appeared but little cultivation, and the few villages that occurred were poor. We croffed the little river Jurgo, which falls into the Ganges at a short distance to the eastward of Chunarghur, and then entered a thick forest, which continued as far as Suctafghur. At this place there is a barrier for the defence of a pass through the hills, which confifts of a rampart with round towers at intervals. The wall, besides including an angle at the bottom of the hills, is continued to the fummit of them, on the fouth fide, where it terminates among rocks and bushes. The west end of the works is terminated by a rocky precipice, and by the bed of the Jurgo, which has here been confiderably deepened by the torrents. Suctafghur is the head of a Purgun-CC-0. Gurukul Kangri University Haridwar Collection. Digitized by S3 Foundation USA nah bearing the same name. Its fortifications were erected by a Rajah called Suckur Sing, about four centuries and a half ago.

On the 29th, our road led through the town and works of Suttafghur, beyond which we ascended a fleep and rocky pass, called Barrah Gaut. When arrived at the top of it, I found the hills covered with a thick forest. On my right hand, for more than a mile, the Jurgo continued its course, nearly parallel to the road. There is a confiderable fall in it, called by the natives, Seedanaut Jurna, from which the fource of the river cannot be far distant; but the fall is only in action during the rainy feafon. Our oad now lay through woods, and rocky defiles, intil we approached to Rajeghur, where our journey for this day terminated. Near this place were feveral fmaller villages, but few figns of cultivation; and the general appearance of the country feemed to prognosticate a very wild region before us. There were no hills in fight, but we were on very elevated land; for we had ascended at least 300 yards, without meeting with any confiderable descent. Nothing worthy of remark prefented itself at this village, but the ruins of an old fort, which had been built by a Zemeendar, who proving refractory in the days of BULWANT SING,\* it had been in confequence deftroved.

JAN. 30th. My journey continued about nine miles to a little village called Newary Pindarya, and, as yesterday, through a thick forest. We encamped at a tank and grove of Mowah trees, where abundance of game appeared in every direction around us; and the devastation which was visible in the crops, evidently shewed how much the peasants had suffered from the incursions of numerous herds of wild beasts from the neighbouring thickets.

JAN.

JAN. 31st. After leaving Rajeghur, we croffed the Boker river, which divides the country called Chundail from the Purgunnah of Suttasghur. The fame wild country continued, although the foil was fomewhat less rocky. For the last two days the hoar frost had been so sharp as to blight the leaves on the trees, and had very much injured the crops. Low hills now appeared to the southward in even ridges.

FEB. 1st. A march of ten miles brought us this day to Bilwanya, a poor straggling village, consisting of about forty huts. No supplies of grain of any kind were to be had here; and although we had passed a considerable tract of cultivated country, I was told it would be the last we should meet with for fome time. The latter part of the road had dwindled to a mere foot path; and I was informed, that we could expect nothing but the wildest and most desolate regions for a confiderable distance.

The natives of this country call themselves Chundails, and are a tribe of Rajepoots. The present Rajah, whose name is Futteh Bahadur, resides at Rajepour, about ten coss west of Bidjyghur. The country, I was informed, had become tributed as a second of Present in the days of tary to the Rajahs of Benares in the days of Bul-WANT Sing, who made a conquest of it from Sucbust NARAIN, the great grandfather of the prefent Rajah of Chundail.

It had been with difficulty that we procured provisions for the last two days; but, notwithstanding our supplies had been sparing, we got withal to satisfy us. This made me seriously attend to the reports of the nature of the country through which my route was to be continued; and finding that no Bazar was to be met with, nor even supplies of grain, in

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any way, until we should arrive at Shawpour, the Singrowla Rajah's capital, it imposed on me the necessity of collecting, and carrying an adequate quantity; in order that the want of food should not increase the difficulties which might occur in exploring a desolate and mountainous wilderness.

FEB. 2d. OUR tract this day was in a defile of thick bushes, and the ground was level for the first two miles; when the country became uneven, and more rugged, as we went on; until we reached the fummit of a very large acclivity, called Kimoor-gaut. The descent from this was so craggy and steep, as to be barely passable for our cattle. With much difficulty the party got down, and proceeded through defiles among fmall rocky hills, and thick woods, as far as the little village of Selpy, confifting only of four poor huts, fituated on the north bank of the river Soane. To the westward of Kimoor-gaut, there was a peaked hill confiderably elevated, which prefenting a favourable fituation for viewing the country, and the course of the river Soane, I inquired of a Cole villager if there was any path to ascend it; he informed me there was, and directed me with three or four of my attendants in the ascent. After an hour's hard labour, in climbing over rocks, and forcing our way through the thickets, we reached the fummit of the hill; when our toil was abundantly compensated by a most romantic view of the river meandering through extensive wilds; the fun just rising, and lighting up the woods with his rays; and the beautiful tints refledled by the water, confiderably added to the fplendour of the scenery.

On furveying the spot where we stood, I observed three large rocks, with a kind of cell within them, and a cavity in front, that was filled with water, accumulated from the dew that had fallen from the trees CC-0. Gurukul Kangri University Haridwar Collection. Digitized by S3 Foundation USA Which

which hung over it. Upon enquiring of our guide concerning the place, I found that the fanciful notions of the Hindoos had made it the abode of RAM, LITCHMUN, and SEETA,\* who, in their travels, were faid to have rested in this place for a night; and the Cole observed to me, that the water I perceived in the hollow of the rock, was the same they had bathed their feet in. My curiofity being fatisfied, we defcended from the hill, and refumed our journey, which terminated this day on the fouth bank of the Soane, at a little village called Corary, confifting only of two huts, and five inhabitants of the Cole tribe. The bed of the river was about half a mile wide, and full of quick fands; but the stream was not more than a hundred yards broad, and flowed rapidly, with about three feet water in the deepest part. Many impressions of the feet of wild beafts were here visible.

Being this day at a loss for a place to encamp in, and not wishing to injure the Coles by encamping on the little spots, which, with much care and toil, they had cleared and cultivated, we took up our abode, for the remainder of the day and night, in the jungle. We found here the remains of two Hindoo temples, which had been dedicated to Bhavany, with many figures; but time had almost consumed the buildings, and had so wasted the images, that the attribute of each was scarcely discernible.

FEB. 3d. The road continued between two ranges of small hills, and through a forest, consisting of Saul trees, Seetfal, and Bamboos. The Mowah tree was here and there seen, and rarely the Burr and Peepul; but the stems of all the large trees were choaked with underwood. We arrived this day at Aumrye, a village consisting of about sisteen huts; and I was informed, that it was the last abode of men I should meet with for some distance. A part of the Burdy Rajah's

<sup>\*</sup> Hindoo Deities.

Rajah's country is near this place, intermixed with the Company's Territory;\* and the Purgunnah of Agowry projects here so as to include the village of Aumrye. We encamped near the old site of the village, in which we saw the remains of an aqueduct, that had formerly conveyed water, from a fall in an adjoining rivulet, to the village; but was now covered with long grass and bushes.

FEB. 5th. Having halted the preceding day at Aumrye, we continued our route through a wildernefs, continually afcending and defcending over little hills. The frost, which had now continued fix days, having blighted the leaves on the trees, my camels were consequently distressed for forage, and there was nothing to offer the cattle, but a kind of long grafs, t which being rank, they ate but sparingly of it. Our march this day terminated at Dar Nulla, a rivulet of clear water, and we encamped in the jungle. I had observed, in the course of the journey, feveral Saul trees, which the hill people had tapped for the refin they contain. A tribe, called Karwars, are faid to inhabit these hills. They had shifted the fite of the village of Darr, about two miles to the eastward, for retirement. I was likewise informed of two iron mines which are fituated about two coss to the eastward of this place.

FEB. 6th. After proceeding about three miles through a thick forest, we crossed the Joogamahal Hills; the ascents and descents over which were frequent and rugged. We encamped this day on the banks of the Guttaun, which was the largest river I had met with since crossing the Soane. The bed of it was full of the finest blue and red slate; and a stream perfectly

+ This grass appeared to be of the same kind which I had seen in the Mysore country; it has a strong aromatic smell, is somewhat prickly, and

<sup>\*</sup> To those who are conversant with Indian Geography, or have ever inspected a map in which the boundaries are particularly laid down between the territories of the several powers, this will not appear extraordinary.

perfectly transparent, flowing rapidly over it in unequal depths, had a pleasing and beautiful effect.

FEB. 7th. As we proceeded this day, we were frequently compelled to lop the jungle, to enable our cattle to pass, which occasioned much delay. The country was very hilly, confifting, for the most part, of separate hillocks, intersected by ravines; but we had the comfort of an open space to encamp in on the banks of the Kungass river. At a short distance from our encampment, there was a little field cultivated with gram; and I was told that a village belonging to the Karwars, called Udgegoor, was fituated only one cofs distant to the eastward. While my tent was pitching, currofity prompted me to visit it. I found it confifted only of fix rude huts, which had been built in a recess of the hills. Three men with myfelf approached, with the utmost precaution, to prevent alarm; but on discovering us, the villagers inflantly fled. I stopped to observe them, and perceived that they were almost naked. The women, affisted by the men, were carrying off their children, and running with speed to hide themselves in the woods. I then approached the huts, and found some gourds, that had been dried, for the purpose of holding water; a bow, with a few arrows, scattered upon the ground; and fome fowls as wild as the people who had fled. After leaving their huts, I perceived a man upon a diffant hill, and fent a Cole villager, who had accompanied us from Aumrye, to endeavour to appeale his fears, and to perfuade the people to return to their dwellings. The Cole expressed some alarm at going by himfelf; but, upon my affuring him of affistance, in case of his being attacked, he advanced a fhort diftance, and hallooed to the man on the hill, who, after some time had been spent in parley, faid the villagers would return to their huts on our quitting them. I immediately retired, leaving the Cole with instructions to inquire if any grain could be procured. He returned about noon, and

told me that, if I would fend some cowries, it was probable we might get a little grain; but nothing else fuitable to our wants. This I had provided for, and fent him again; when, after two hours, he returned accompanied by two of the villagers, who were almost naked, but were armed with bows and arrows, and a hatchet each. They brought with them about ten feers of Chenna gram.\* I presented them a piece of red cloth, with which they feemed well pleafed; and, returning to their huts, they foon afterwards brought me a present of three fowls. One of these was of the reversed feather tribe; and my people immediately called it the hupfy moorghy, or Caffre fowl. The panic which, on our arrival, the mountaineers had been impressed with, having now subsided, I asked the two men, if they would accompany us a part of our next day's journey. They appeared to be somewhat alarmed at the proposal, but consented.

FEB. 8th. We had proceeded about a mile when the two mountaineers joined us. Their delay had been occasioned by the cold; for having no clothes, and being abundantly supplied with fuel from the woods, the had fat round a fire during the night. They came armed, as on the preceding day, with bows and arrows, and a hatchet each; the latter of which they used with much dexterity in lopping the jungle for About two miles from the Guttaun river, we came to a very steep and rugged defile, called Bildwarry Gaut; but the road, after descending it, continued good as far as the Bejool river; on the fouth bank of which we encamped. We had paffed in our track two little dwellings of the mountaineers, who, notwithstanding our efforts, united to those of the two men who accompanied us from the last village, to appeafe their alarm, had immediately fled.

THE

<sup>\*</sup> A kind of pulse with which horses are usually sed in Hindoostan. Cicer arietinum. Lin.) The seer is a measure weighing about two pounds. CC-0 Gurukul Kangri University Haridwar Collection. Digitized by \$3 Foundation USA

्॥श्रिविनमत् श्रार्ष्ठप्रमानः। दंप्र याया स्तानीसनाका (प्रिणालः॥ मा व्रामायाकानः॥ ती स्वायम्भावाकानः॥ श्री मेवप्रम्भावाकावयम्य समहत्वप्रवर्षी पतिमा। भ्वर

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りいるといってすべん

F2hte Stuposta

四月日本: 中华公长了日本了公子

This Inscription is a continuation of the former & fries it at the \* it is below the others & in a different Character. It comences on the South side & encircles the Pillar about seven feet from the Terrace of the Building.

\*ः ग्रेलगमित्रिशियानयगायाः प्रचिधि देनात्र प्रवाणि विषयि विषयि ।

गामाण कि ति इप्योक् क्वः स्थं मगोवि विषयि मि विषय अहा कि तर्व तः शाप्त याणे से वा विषयि ।

गीना में हि वा या देन एवं कि के वा विषयि ।

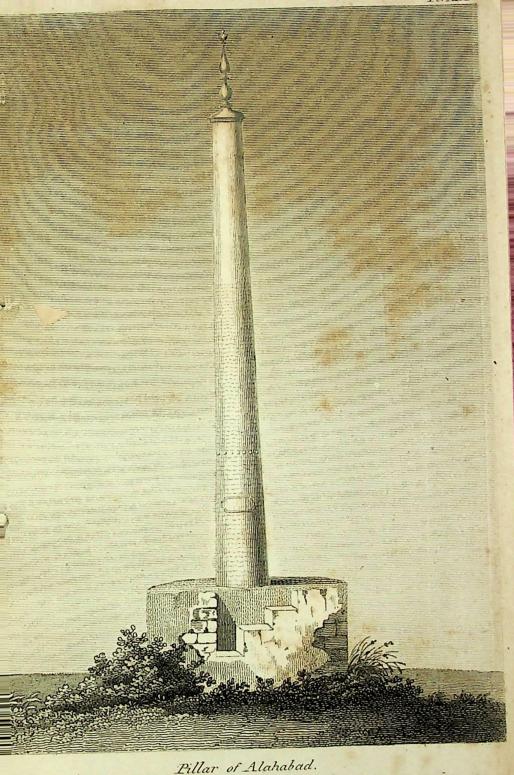
गीना में हि वा या देन एवं कि के वा वा वा वा वा वा विषयि ।

गीना वा प्रवाण विषयि ।

गीना विषयि

म रायामा शिवास्त्री हिल्लास्त्री

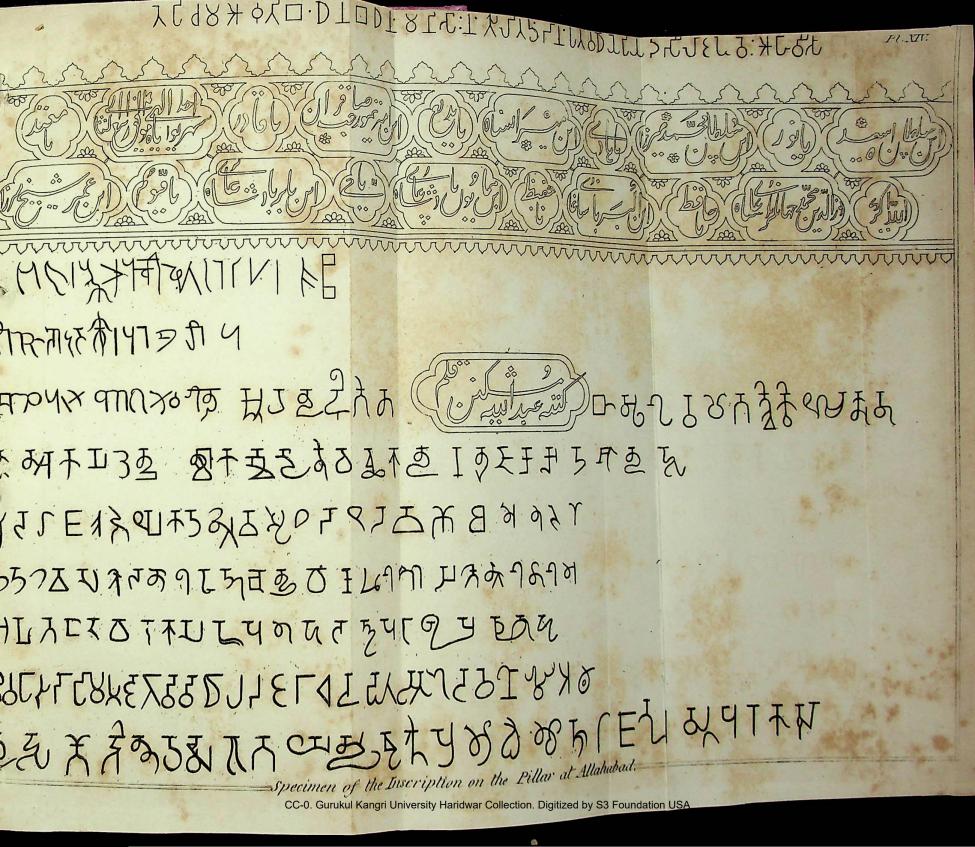




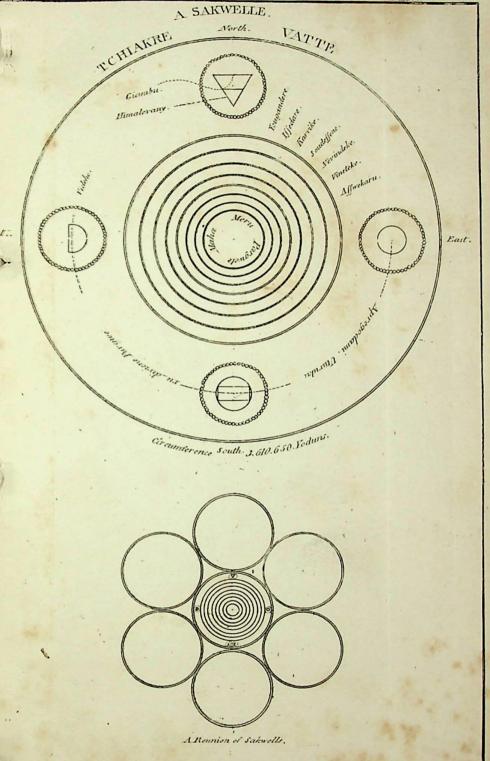
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かんりそにらいみしばた HOLY रेनिस्माप्रें LICE ELS I SHALL 京研下る ASLE 557五、 HLYCI "SCYLC 五五十十八日天 CC-0. Gurukul Kangri University Haridwar Collection. Digitized by S3 Foundation USA









PRIICAL SECTION OF A SAKWELLE. Plate. 16. Maha Meru-Pargwette. Circumf. 10000 Toduns. Yougandere'. Issedare: Karvike: CC-0. Gurukul Kangri University Haridwar Collection. Digitized by S3 Foundation USA



throughout space; the minds of thy foes are void [of hope]; their route is the desert where men are hindred from passing; O VIGRAHA RAJ'A DÉVA,

in the jubilee occasioned by thy march.

May thy abode, O VIGRAHA, sovereign of the earth, be fixed, as in reason it ought, in the bosoms (akin to the mansion of dalliance) of the women with beautiful eye-brows, who were married to thy enemies. There is no doubt of thy being the highest of embodied souls. (7) Didst thou not sleep in the lap of S'Rí, whom thou didst seize from the ocean, having churned it? (8)

In the year from the fortunate Vicra'maditya 1220 (9) on Thursday the 15th day of the bright half of the month Vaisác'h, this was written in the presence of (10) . . . . by S'ripati, the son of Máhava, a Cáyast'ha of a family in Gaud'a: at this time the fortunate Lacshana

Pa'la, a Rajaputra, is prime minister.

S'IVA the terrible, and the universal monarch.

N 3 THERE

(7) Servone explains this very obscure passage otherwise: "there is (i. e. there should be) no doubt or hesitation in the mind of thee,

who art the highest of embodied souls. (Purushottama)."
(8) Purushottama is a title of Vishn'u. With reference to this term, the author of the infcription asks, "Art thou not Vishn'u himself? Art thou not he who slept in the arms of Lacshm?" The legend of the churning of the ocean is well known.

(9) In the present copy the date is very distinct; and proves to be

1220; not 123 as was suspected by Sir WILLIAM JONES.

(10) This part of the inscription is not legible.

THERE are on the same page, some short inscriptions, which I cannot decypher. One of them, however, is partly legible, and appears to be in the Hindustání language. It contains the name of Sultán Ibrahim, and wishes him a long life.

# Account of the Kookies or Lunctas.

By John Macrae, Esq.

COMMUNICATED BY J. H. HARINGTON, Esq.

MR. HARINGTON has the pleasure of laying before the society, an account of the Kookies, or Cúcls, respecting whom a paper communicated in Persian by Mr. RAWLINS, was translated by Sir WILLIAM JONES, and printed in the 2d Volume of the Researches.

The paper now communicated was written by Mr. John McRae, Surgeon in the Honourable Company's Service, at Chittagong; and from information given to him by a native of Runganeeah, who had long resided among the Cúcis as their captive. It was originally intended as a private communication only; but conceiving that the description of manners contained in it, of a people little known, on the frontier of the British Territory, would prove acceptable to the Society, the author was solicited to permit its being read to them; and they will probably consider it sufficiently interesting for publication in their Researches.

January 24th, 1799.

THE Kookies are a race of people that live among the mountains to the north east of the Chittagong province, at a greater distance than the Choomeeas from the inhabitants of the plains; to whom therefore they are little known, and with whom they very rarely have any intercourse, except when they occasionally visit the hauts, or markets, on the borders of the jungles in the Runganeeah and Aurungabad districts, to purchase salt, dried fish, and tobacco.

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The following account of them was taken from a native of the Runganeeah district, who, when a boy, was carried away, in one of their predatory excursions, and, after a captivity of twenty years,

found means to return to his family.

THE Kookies, or Lunctas, (as they are also called,) are the least civilized, of any of the people we as yet know, among these mountains: like all mountaineers, they are of an active, muscular make, but not tall; they are stouter, and of a darker complexion than the Choomeeas\*, and, like them, have the peculiar features of all the natives of the eastern parts of Asia, namely the flat nose, small eye, and broad round face.

THE tradition of the Kookies respecting their origin is, that they, and the Mugs, are the offspring of the same progenitor, who had two sons, by different mothers. The Mugs, they say, are the descendants of the eldest, and the Kookies of the youngest son. The mother of the youngest having died during his infancy, he was neglected by his step-mother, who, while she cloathed her own son, allowed him to go naked; and this partial distinction being still observed, as he grew up, he went by the name of Luncia, or the naked. Upon the death of their father, a quarrel arose between the brothers, which induced the Luncta to betake himself to the hills, and there pass the remainder of his days. His descendants have continued there ever since, and still go by the name of Lunctas; though, properly speaking, the term is only applicable to the male part of them, as the females wear a short apron before, made of cloth of their own manufacture, and which falls down from the loins to the middle of the thigh; and both sexes occasionally throw a loose

<sup>\*</sup> Choomeras are the inhabitants of the first range of hills bordering on the plains to the north and east of the province of Chittageng, and are tributary to the Honourable Company; their villages are called Chooms.

sheet of cloth over their bodies, to defend them from the cold.

This tradition of their origin receives much support from the great similarity of the Mug and Kookie languages, many words of which are exactly the same, and their general resemblance is such that a Mug and Kookie can make themselves understood to each other.

THE Kookies are all hunters and warriors, and are divided into a number of distinct tribes, totally independent of each other, though all of them acknowledge, more or less, the authority of three different Rajahs, named TH'ANDON, MANKENE, and HAL-CHA, to whom the various tribes are attached, but whose power over them is very limited, except in that tribe with which the Rajah lives, where he is abso-The rajahships are hereditary, and the Rajahs, by way of distinction, wear a small slip of black cloth round their loins; and, as a farther mark of superior rank, they have their hair brought forward, and tied in a bunch, so as to overshade the forehead, while the rest of the Kookies have theirs hanging loose over the shoulders. The females also of the Rajah's family wear an apron of black cloth, with a red border, which falls down to the knee, -a colour and fashion prohibited to the rest of the sex, black being the royal colour.

THE Rajahs receive a tribute in kind from the tribes, to support their dignity; and in cases of general danger, they can summon all the warriors to arms; but each tribe is under the immediate command of its own particular chief, whose word is a law in peace and war, and who has the power of life and death in his tribe. The chieftainship is not hereditary like the rajahship, but elective, though in general the nearest relation of the last chief succeeds him, if deemed by the tribe a proper person for the trust, and the Rajah cannot remove a chief once elected, should he disapprove of him.

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THE Kookies are armed with bows and arrows, spears, clubs, and daws, an instrument in common use among the natives of this province, as a hand hatchet, and exactly resembling the knife of the Nyars on the Malabar Coast, which is a most destructive weapon in close combat. They use shields, made of the hide of the Gyal, (a species of cow peculiar to their hills;) and the inside of their shields they ornament with small pendulous plates of brass, which make a tingling noise, as the warriors toss about their arms, either in the fight or in the dance. They also wear round their necks large strings, of a particular kind of shell found in their hills; about their loins, and on their thighs, immediately above the knee, they tie large bunches of long goat's hair, of a red colour; and on their arms they have broad rings of ivory, in order to make them appear the more terrifick to their enemies.

THE. Kookies choose the steepest and most inaccessible hills to build their villages upon, which, from being thus situated, are called Parahs, or, in the Kookie language, K'hooah. Every Parah consists of a tribe, and has seldom fewer than four or five hundred inhabitants, and sometimes contains one or two thousand. Towards our frontiers, however, where there is little apprehension of danger, a tribe frequently separates into several small parties, which form so many different Parahs on the adjoining hills, as may best suit their convenience. To give further security to the Parahs, in addition to their naturally strong situation, the Kookies surround them with a thick bamboo pallisade; and the passages leading into them, of which there are commonly four or five in different quarters, they strictly guard, day and night, especially if there is any suspicion of danger; but whether there is, or is not, they are at all times extremely jealous of admitting strangers within the Parah: they build their houses as close to each other as possible, and make them spacious enough to ac-

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commodate four or five families in every house. They construct them after the manner of the Choomeeas and Mugs, that is, on platforms or stages of bamboo, raised about six feet from the ground, and enter them by ladders, or, more frequently, by a single stick, with notches cut in it, to receive the foot: underneath the stages they keep their domestic animals. All these precautions of defence strongly indicate the constant state of alarm in which they live, not only from the quarrels of the Rajahs with each other, but also from the hostile feuds of the different tribes; not excepting those who are attached to the same Rajah. Depredations on each other's property, and the not giving up of such refugees as may fly from one Parah to another, are the most frequent causes of quarrel, when they carry on a most destructive petty warfare, in which the several tribes are more or less involved, according as the principals are more or less connected among them. On these occasions, when an enterprize is not of sufficient importance to induce the chief to head all the warriors of the Parah, he always selects a warrior of approved valour and address to lead the party to be detached.

They always endeavour to surprize their enemy, in preference to engaging him in open combat, however confident of superiority they may be. With that view, when on any hostile excursion, they never kindle a fire, but carry with them a sufficiency of ready-dressed provisions, to serve during the probable term of their absence; they march in the night, proceeding with the greatest expedition, and observing the most profound silence; when day overtakes them, they halt, and lie concealed in a kind of hammock, which they fasten among the branches of the loftiest trees, so that they cannot be perceived by any person passing underneath. From this circumstance of ambuscade the idea has originated, of their living in trees instead of houses. When they have, in this

manner

manner, approached their enemy unperceived, they generally make their attack about the dawn, and commence it with a great shout, and striking of their spears against their shields. If they are successful in their onset, they seldom spare either age or sex; at times, however, they make captives of the children, and often adopt them into their families, when they have none of their own; and the only slaves among them are the captives thus taken.

The heads of the slain they carry in great triumph to their Parah, where the warriors are met, on their arrival, by men, women and children, with much rejoicing; and they have the peculiar privilege of killing any animal in the place they may choose, (not excepting the chief's,) to be given as a feast in celebration of their victory: but, should the party have been unsuccessful, instead of being thus met with every demonstration of joy, and led into the Parah amidst the exultations of its friends, it enters in the greatest silence, and as privately as possible; and all the warriors composing it remain in disgrace, until such time as they retrieve their characters, either jointly or individually, by some act of valour.

The Kookies are often attacked by the Banjoogees, who, though not so numerous a race of people, yet, from being all united under one Rajah, always prevail, and exact an annual tribute of salt from the two Kookie Rajahs, Th'andon and Mankene, who, from having a greater intercourse with the Choomeeas, receive a larger supply of this article from the plains below, than their more remote neighbours. Salt is in the highest estimation among them all; whenever they send any message of consequence to each other, they always put in the hand of the bearer of it a small quantity of salt, to be delivered with the message, as expressive of its importance. Next to personal valour, the accomplishment most esteemed in a warrior, is superioraddress instealing, and if a thief can

convey

convey undiscovered to his own house his neighbour's property, it cannot afterwards be claimed; nor, if detected in the act, is he otherwise punished than by exposure to the ridicule of the *Parah*, and being obliged to restore what he may have laid hold of.

This must tend to encourage the practice of thieving, which, no doubt, is considered in such high estimation, because the same sagacity and address, necessary to give success to the thief, qualifies the warrior, in an eminent degree, to steal unperceived upon and surprize his enemy, and thus ensures him victory. So thought the ancient warriors of Sparta, who, like the Kookies of the present day, held in estimation the man who could steal with

superior expertness.

THE Kookies, like all savage people, are of a most vindictive disposition; blood must always be shed for blood; if a tiger even kills any of them, near a Parah, the whole tribe is up in arms, and goes in pursuit of the animal; when, if he is killed, the family of the deceased gives a feast of his flesh, in revenge of his having killed their relation. And should the tribe fail to destroy the tiger, in this first general pursuit of him, the family of the deceased must still continue the chace; for until they have killed either this, or some other tiger, and have given a feast of his flesh, they are in disgrace in the Parah, and not associated with by the rest of the inhabitants. In like manner, if a tiger destroys one of a hunting party, or of a party of warriors on an hostile excursion, neither the one nor the other (whatever their success may have been) can return to the Parah, without being disgraced unless they kill the tiger. A more striking instance still of this revengeful spirit of retaliation is, that if a man should happen to be killed by an accidental fall from a tree, all his relations assemble, and cut it down; and however large it may be, they reduce it to chips,

chips, which they scatter in the winds, for having, as they say, been the cause of the death of their brother. They employ much of their time in the chace, and having no prejudice of cast (or sect) to restrain them in the choice of their game, no animal comes amiss to them. An elephant is an immense prize for a whole Parah. They do not remove their Parahs so frequently as the Choomeeas do their Chooms: the Choomeeas seldom remain longer than two years on the same spot; whereas the Kookies are usually four or five; and when they migrate, they burn their Parah, lest the Gyals should return to it, as they are frequently known to do if the huts are left standing. The Kookies never go to a greater distance from their old ground than a journey of twelve hours, unless compelled to proceed farther, from some particular cause, such as the fear of an enemy, or the want of a proper spot to fix upon.

THEIR great object in selecting a place to settle on, is natural strength of situation, with a sufficiency of good ground near the *Parah* on which to rear the different grains, roots, and vegetables they wish to cultivate. They cultivate the ground as the *Choomeeas* do, and in this, as in every other domestick occupation, the female sex bears the weight of the labour, and no rank exempts them from it: the wife of the chief, and the wife of his vassal, work alike

in the same field.

A PROPER spot being found on the declivity of some hill contiguous to the Parah, the men cut down the jungle upon it in the month of March, and allow it to remain there until sufficiently decayed to burn freely, when they set it on fire, and thus at once perform the double purpose of clearing away the rubbish, and of manuring the ground with its ashes.—The women now dig small holes, at certain distances, in the spot so cleared, and into each hole they throw a handful of different seeds they intend

intend to rear, which are all jumbled together in a basket slung over the shoulder: the seeds are then covered with earth, and left to their fate; when in due time, according to their various natures, the plants spring up, ripen, and are reaped in succession: rice, Indian corn, and the mustard plant, are thus seen in the same field. Of rice they have a great variety, and two or three kinds peculiar to the hills; one of these, the Chereh, is uncommonly fine, and has the peculiar quality of affecting, as a laxative, persons not in the habit of eating it. The other sorts are called Beh, Deengkroo, Roomkee, Sepooce, Bangsoo and Boulteh; but it is not exactly ascertained, whether or not these are different species of grain, or the same kind, receiving different names from the season of reaping it. The Beh is reaped in July, the Cherch in August, the Deengkroo in September, the Roomkee in October, and in November the Sepooee, Bangsoo, and Boulteh. They have another small grain, called Cutchoo, and a variety of beans, as the Karass, Burguddee, and Tooraee: the seed of the mustard plant they eat, but express no oil from it. Of the gourd and cucumber plants they have several kinds; and tumerick, yams, and tobacco, they cultivate; but the latter they have in small quantity, though very fond of it.

In their forests they have abundance of honey, but are ignorant of the method of separating it from

the wax of the comb.

Their domestic animals are Gyals, Goats, Hogs, Dogs, and Fowls, and of these the Gyal is by much the most valued, both on account of its milk, and its flesh. As already mentioned, it is a species of cow, peculiar to these hifls, where it is met in its wild state: in shape it resembles the heavy strong make of the wild buffalo, but has much shorter horns; its colour is brown, acquiring a lighter shade towards the belly, which, as well as the legs, is often white: its milk is nearly as rich as the

cream of common cow milk, and its flesh constitutes the first luxury at a Kookie feast, and, except on very extraordinary occasions, is never given. The goats are larger, and more hairy than those of the plains. In the other animals there is nothing peculiar. Notwithstanding that the Kookies have such a number of different articles of food, yet a scarcity of provisions frequently prevails among the tribes, when those upon a friendly footing always assist each other; and whatever may have been thus amicably given is rigidly repaid, in more favourable times, by the tribe which received it. A scarcity may be occasioned either by the irregularity of the season in a failure or excess of the periodical rains; or else by the incursions of enemies, who never fail to lay waste and destroy, if they can, every thing to be found without the Parah. And the Parah itself, in a fatally unguarded hour, is often destroyed also, when the helpless survivors, if any, of such a calamity, are thrown upon the humanity of their neighbouring friends.

In the Parahs they cook their victuals in earthen pots of their own manufacture, resembling those of the Bengalees, but much stronger and thicker in substance. The hunter, however, in his excursions through the forests, boils his food in a particular kind of hollow bamboo. From the ashes of a different species of the same plant, he extracts a substitute for salt, to eat with his victuals; and with equal simplicity and readiness he kindles his fire, by the friction of one piece of dried bamboo upon another. The Kookies have but one wife; they may however keep as many concubines as they please. Adultery may be punished with instant death by either of the injured parties, if the guilty are caught by them in the fact; it may otherwise be compromised by a fine of Gyals, as the chief may determine. The frailty of a concubine is always compromised in this way, without disgrace to the parties. Fornication is punished in no other manner, than by obliging the parties to marry, unless the man may have used violence, in which case he is punished, generally with death, either by the chief, or by the relations of the injured female. Marriage is never consummated among them before the age of puberty. When a young man has fixed his affections upon a young woman, either of his own, or of some neighbouring Parah, his father visits her father, and demands her in marriage for his son: her father, on this, inquires what are the merits of the young man to entitle him to her favour, and how many can he afford to entertain at the wedding feast: to which the father of the young man replies, that his son is a brave warrior, a good hunter, and an expert thief, for that he can produce so many heads, of the enemies he has slain, and of the game he has killed; that in his house are such and such stolen goods, and that he can feast so many (mentioning the number) at his marriage. On hearing this, the father of the girl either goes himself, or sends some confidential friend, to ascertain the facts, which, if he finds to be as stated, he consents to the marriage, and it is celebrated by a feast, given by him to the bridegroom, and all their mutual friends. night the bride is led by her husband from her father's house to his own, where he next day entertains the company of the preceding day, which is more or less numerous, according to the connections and circumstances of the parties. When a chief marries, the whole Parah is entertained by him; and should his bride be from another Parah, as often happens, the two Parahs feast and carouse with each other alternately. At these, and all their festivals, there is much drinking, of a liquor made of the rice, called Deengkroo, of which the Kookies are very fond. There are two kinds of this liquor, the one pure and limpid; and the other of a red

colour, from an infusion of the leaf of a particular tree called Bangmullah, which renders it highly intoxicating. They indulge very freely in the use of both kinds, except when they go on hostile excursions: they then rigidly abstain from them. In January and February they usually marry, because they have provisions in the greatest plenty, and it is their most idle time.

WHEN any person dies in a Parah, the corpse is conveyed by the relations of the deceased, and deposited upon a stage raised under a shed erected for the purpose, at some distance from the dwelling house. While it remains there, it is carefully guarded day and night from the depredations of dogs and birds, by some one of the family, and a regular supply of food and drink is daily brought and laid before it. Should more than one casualty occur in a family, the same ceremony is observed with respect to each corpse; and at whatever time of the year persons may happen to die in the Parah, all the bodies must be kept in this manner until the 11th of April, called by the Bengalees, Beessoo. On that day all the relations of the deceased assemble and convey their remains from the sheds to different funeral piles prepared for them on a particular spot without the Parah, where they are burnt; as are also the several sheds under which the bodies had lain from the period of their decease. After this melancholy ceremony is over, the whole party repairs to the house of him in whose family the first casualty occurred in that year, and partakes of an entertainment given by him in honour of the dead. On the following day a similar feast is given by him in whose family the next casualty of the season had happened; and thus, the feast goes round in succession, until one is given for each of the dead.

In this pious preservation of the dead till a cer-

tain day in the year, when only the last solemn funeral rites can be performed to their remains, there is a singular coincidence in the practice of the Kookies with that of some of the tribes of the North American Indians, as related in Bertham's Travels; and it must appear a curious fact, that in so very particular an instance, there should be this similitude in the customs of two savage people, placed in such opposite parts of the world; where the climate, and other peculiar local circumstances, are so totally different.

THE Kookies have an idea of a future state, where they are rewarded or punished according to their merits in this world. They conceive that nothing is more pleasing to the Deity, or more certainly ensures future happiness, than destoying a number of their enemies. The Supreme Being they conceive to be Omnipotent, and the Creator of the world, and all that it contains. The term in their language for the Supreme Being is KHOGEIN POOT-TEEANG. They also worship an inferior Deity, under the name of SHEEM SAUK, to whom they address their prayers, as a mediator with the Supreme Being, and as more immediately interesting himself in the concerns of individuals. To the Supreme Being they offer in sacrifice a Gyal, as being their most valued animal; while to SHEEM SAUK they sacrifice a goat only. In every Parah, they have a rudely formed figure of wood of the human shape, representing SHEEM SAUK; it is generally placed under a tree, and to it they offer up their prayers before they set out on any excursion or enterprize, as the Deity that controuls and directs their actions and destiny. Whenever, therefore, they return successful, whether from the chace, or the attack of an enemy, they religiously place before SHEEM SAUK all the heads of the slain, or of their game killed, as expressive of their devotion, and to

record their exploits. Each warrior has his own particular pile of heads, and according to the number it consists of, his character as a hunter and warrior is established in the tribe. These piles are sacred; and no man dares attempt to filch away his neighbours' fame, by stealing from them to add to his own. They likewise worship the moon, as conceiving it to influence their fortunes in some degree. And in every house there is a particular post consecrated to the Deity, before which they always place a certain portion of whatever food they are about to eat. In the month of January they have a solemn acrifice and festival in honour of the Deity, when he inhabitants of several neighbouring Parahs, (if on friendly terms) often unite and kill Gyals, and all kinds of animals, on which they feast, and dance and drink together for several days. They have no professed ministers of religion, but each adores the Deity in such manner as he thinks proper. They have no emblem, as of SHEEM SAUK, to represent the Supreme Being.

THE Kookies having no coins among them, but such as find their way from the plains, for the few necessaries they want they barter their produce with the Choomeeas, who are the medium of commerce; and on these occasions the Choomeeas are never allowed to enter their Parahs, but are obliged to remain at a certain distance, whither the articles of exchange are brought: such is their extreme jealousy of admitting any strangers within their Parahs, as already noticed. They frequently visit a Mug chief, commonly known by the name of the Comlahpore Rajah, who is settled among the hills, in the southern parts of this district, and to whom they make themselves understood from the similarity of language. They can give no account of the country to the eastward of their hills; but they have a tradition that it is an open level country, like the

plain of Chittagong. The Kookies are a great terror to the Bengalees settled on the borders of the jungles in the Runganeeah and Aurungabad districts; and a particular annoyance to the wood cutters, whose business leads them far into the forests, and whom they have frequently surprised and cut off. Whenever an unfortunate event of this nature has occurred, it has always been remarked, that the Kookies carry nothing away from the slain but their heads, and such salt as they may have with them. They stand so greatly in awe of fire arms, that the report of a single musket will put a whole party to flight; on this account the Rajah of the Choomeeas, who is so immediately in their neighbourhood, keeps in his service a number of Pehluwans, or men with fire-arms; but, notwithstanding, his people have been obliged to abandon several places, by the depredations committed by the Koo-Though the Rajah is upon terms of friendship with some of the tribes, yet, in the course of their migrations, these are succeeded by others that he knows nothing of, and of whose approach even he is ignorant, until his people are cut off; he is, therefore, under the necessity of being constantly prepared to repel these attacks, which, from being always made in the night, it is impossible to guard against.

THE following is a specimen of the Kookie lan-

guage:

Meepa, · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Man.
Noonuoo,	
Naoo,	
Meepa Naoot'he,	
Noondoot'he,	
P'ha,	
Noo,	
Chopooce,	
Charnoo,	
P'hoo,	

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P'hee,	· · Crandmother.
in numbers are reckoned t	hus:
Katka,	··One.
Neeka,	··Two.
Toomka,	··Three.
Leeka	· · · Four.
Rungākā, Rooka,	· · · Five.
Rooka,	·· Six.
Sereeka, · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	··· Seven.
Rictka,	
Koaka,	···Nine.
Soomka, · · · · ·	· · · Ten.

By combining the first syllable of Soomka with every intermediate number, as Soomkatka, Soomneeka, Soom-toomka, and so on, they reckon to twenty, which is Roboka. The same combination now takes place with Roboka, the final syllable ka being struck off; it goes on Robokatka, Robonecka, &c. to thirty, which is expressed by Soomtoomka, or three tens. Forty is Soomleeka, or four tens; fifty Soomrungaka, or five tens; and so on to a hundred, which is expressed by Rezāka. From Rezāka the final syllable ka being struck off, a similar combination, as above, takes place with Neeka, Toomka, &c. to one thousand, called Saungka. The preceding rule of striking off the final ka is observed with Saungha, and thus they go on to hundreds of thousands, beyond which their ideas of numbers do not extend, as far as could be understood from their having no terms to express them.

## VII.

## ON THE

## SANSCRIT AND PRÁCRIT LANGUAGES.

By H. T. COLEBROOKE, Esq.

IN a treatise on rhetorick, compiled for the use of MANICYA CHANDRA, Rájá of Tirabhucti or Tirhút, a brief enumeration of languages, used by Hindu poets, is quoted from two writers on the art of poetry. The following is a literal translation of both passages.

"Sanscrita Prácrita, Pais áchí and Mágad'hí, are in short the four paths of poetry. The Gods, &c. speak Sanscrita; benevolent genii, Prácrita; wicked demons, Pais áchí; and men of low tribes and the rest, Mágad'hí. But sages deem Sanscrita the chief of these four languages. It is used three ways; in

prose, in verse, and in a mixture of both."

"LANGUAGE, again, the virtuous have declared to be fourfold, Sanscrita [or the polished dialect,] Prácrita [or the vulgar dialect], Apabhrans a [or jargon], and Misra [or mixed]. Sanscrita is the speech of the celestials, framed in grammatical institutes; Prácrita is similar to it, but manifold as a provincial dialect, and otherwise; and those languages which are ungrammatical, are spoken in their respective districts."

THE Pais achi seems to be gibberish, which dramatick poets make the demons speak, when they bring these fantastic beings on the stage. The mixture of languages, noticed in the second quotation, is that which is employed in dramas, as is expressly said by the same author in a subsequent verse. It is not then a compound language, but a mixt dialogue

in which different persons of the drama employ different idioms. Both the passages above quoted are therefore easily reconciled. They in fact notice only three tongues. 1. Sanscrit, a polished dialect, the inflections of which, with all its numerous anomalies, are taught in grammatical institutes. This the dramatic poets put into the mouths of Gods and of Holy personages. 2. Prácrit, consisting of provincial dialects, which are less refined, and have a more imperfect grammar. In dramas it is spoken by women, benevolent genii, &c. 3. Mágadhí, or Apabhrans a, a jargon destitute of regular grammar. It is used by the vulgar, and varies in different districts: the poets accordingly introduce into the dialogue of plays a provincial jargon spoken by the lowest persons of the drama \*.

The languages of India are all comprehended in these three classes. The first contains Sanscrit, a most polished tongue, which was gradually refined until it became fixed in the classic writings of many clegant poets, most of whom are supposed to have flourished in the century preceding the Christian æra. It is cultivated by learned Hindus throughout India, as the language of science and of literature, and as the repository of their law civil and religious. It evidently draws its origin (and some steps of its progress may even now be traced) from a primeval

tongue

<sup>\*</sup> Sanscrita is the passive participle of a compound verb formed by prefixing the preposition sam to the crude verb cri, and by interposing the letter s when this compound is used in the sense of embellishment. Its literal meaning then is "adorned;" and when applied to a language, it signifies "polished." Prácrita is a similar derivative from the same crude verb, with pra prefixed: the most common acceptation of this word is "outcast, or man of the lowest class;" as applied to a language, it signifies "vulgar." Apabhransa is derived from bhras' to tall down: it signifies a word, or dialect, which falls off from correct etymology. Grammarians use the Sanscrita as fignifying "duly formed or regularly inflected;" and Apabhransa for talse grammar.

tongue which was gradually refined in various climates, and became Sanscrit in India; Pahlaví in Persia, and Greek on the shores of the Mediterranean. Like other very ancient languages, Sanscrit abounds in inflections, which are, however, more anomalous in this, than in the other languages here alluded to; and which are even more so in the obsolete dialect of the Védas, than in the polished speech of the classick poets. It has nearly shared the fate of all antient tongues, and is now become almost: a dead language; but there seems no good reason for doubting that it was once universally spoken in India. Its name, and the reputed difficulty of its grammar, have led many persons to imagine that it has been refined by the concerted efforts of a few priests, who set themselves about inventing a new language; not like all other tongues, by the gradually improved practice of good writers and polite speakers. The exquisitely refined system by which the grammar of Sanscrit is taught, has been mistaken for the refinement of the language itself. The rules have been supposed to be anterior to the practice, but this supposition is gratuitous. In Sanscrit, as in every other known tongue, grammarians have not invented etymology, but have only contrived rules to teach what was already established by approved practice.

There is one peculiarity of Sanscrit compositions which may also have suggested the opinion that it could never be a spoken language. I allude to what might be termed the euphonical orthography of Sanscrit. It consists in extending to syntax the rules for the permutation of letters in etymology. Similar rules for avoiding incompatible sounds in compound terms exist in all languages; this is sometimes effected by a deviation from orthography in the pronunciation of words, sometimes by altering one or more letters to make the spelling correspond with the pronunciation. These rules have been more

profoundly

profoundly investigated by Hindu grammarians than by those of any other nation, and they have completed a system of orthography which may be justly termed euphonical. They require all compound terms to be reduced to this standard, and Sanscrit authors, it may be observed, delight in compounds of inordinate length; the whole sentence too, or even whole periods, may, at the pleasure of the author, be combined like the elements of a single word, and good writers generally do so. In common speech this could never have been practised. None but well known compounds would be used by any speaker who wished to be understood, and each word would be distinctly articulated independently of the terms which precede and follow it. Such indeed is the present practice of those who still speak the Sanscrit language; and they deliver themselves with such fluency as is sufficient to prove that Sanscrit may have been spoken in former times with as much facility as the contemporary dialects of the Greek language, or the more modern dialects of the Arabic tongue. I shall take occasion again to allude to this topick after explaining at large what are, and by whom were composed, those grammatical institutes in which the Sanscrit language is framed, according to the author above quoted; or by which (for the meaning is ill conveyed by a literal translation) words are correctly formed and inflected.

PANINI, the father of Sanscrit grammar, lived in so remote an age, that he ranks among those ancient sages whose fabulous history occupies a conspicuous place in the Puránas, or Indian theogonies\*. The name

<sup>\*</sup> Every Puráná treats of five subjects; the creation of the universe, its progress, and the renovation of worlds; the genealogy of gods and heroes; chronology, according to a fabulous system; and heroick history, containing the achievements of demi-gods and heroes.

Since

is a patronymick, indicating his descent from Panin; but according to the Pauránica legends, he was grandson of DEVALA, an inspired legislator. Whatever may be the true history of Panini, to him the-Sútras, or succinct aphorisms of grammar, are attributed by universal consent. His system is grounded on a profound investigation of the analogies in both the regular and the anomalous inflections of the Sanscrit language. He has combined those analogies in a very artificial manner; and has thus compressed a most copious etymology into a very nar-row compass. His precepts are indeed numerous?, but they have been framed with the utmost conciseness; and this great brevity is the result of very ingenious methods which have been contrived for this end, and for the purpose of assisting the student's memory. In Panini's system the mutual relation of all the parts marks that it must have been com-pleted by its author; it certainly bears internal evidence of its having been accomplished by a single effort, and even the corrections, which are needed, cannot be interwoven with the text. It must not be hence inferred, that Panini was unaided by the labours of earlier grammarians; in many of his precepts he cites the authority of his predecessorst, sometimes for a deviation from a general rule, often for a grammatical canon which has universal cogency. He has even employed some technical terms without defining them, because, as his commentators remark, those terms were already introduced by earlier grammarians. † None of the more ancient works,

Since each Puráná contains a cosmogony, with mythological and heroick history, the works which bear that title may not unaptly be compared to the Grecian Theogonies.

<sup>\*</sup> Not fewer than 3996.

<sup>+</sup> SA'CALYA, GA'RGYA, CA'S'YAPA, GA'LAVA, SA'CAT'A'YANA, and others.

<sup>‡</sup> In a few instances he quotes former grammars to refute them.

works, however, seem to be now extant; being superseded by his, they have probably been disused for

ages, and are now perhaps totally lost \*.

A PERFORMANCE such as the Pán iniya grammar must inevitably contain many errors. The task of correcting its inaccuracies has been executed by Cátyáyana†; an inspired saint and law-giver, whose history, like that of all the Indian sages, is involved in the impenetrable darkness of mythology. His annotations, entitled Várticas, restrict those among the Pán iniya rules which are too vague, enarge others which are too limited, and mark numerous exceptions which had escaped the notice of Pánini himself.

The amended rules of grammar have been formed into memorial verses by Bhartri-hari, whose metrical aphorisms, entitled Cáricá, have almost equal authority with the precepts of Pánini, and emendations of Cátyáyana. If the popular traditions concerning Bhartri-hari be well founded, he lived in the century preceding the Christian Æra; for he is supposed to be the same with the brother of Vicramaditya, and the period when this prince reigned at Ujjayini is determined by the date of the Samvat Æra.

THE studied brevity of the Pániniya Sútras renders them in the highest degree obscure. Even with

Definitions of some technical terms, together with grammatical axioms, are also cited from those ancient works in the commentaries on Pa'n'ini. They are inferted in a compilation entitled Paribbáshá, which will be subsequently noticed. The various ancient grammars of the Sanscrit tongue, as enumerated in a memorial verse, are eight in number, and ascribed to the following authors; viz. Indra, Chandra, C'as'a, Critsna', Pi'sa'll', S'a'cata'yana, Pa'n'ini, and Amera Jine'ndra.

<sup>+</sup> This name likewise is a patronymick.

<sup>‡</sup> A beautiful poem has been composed in his name, containing moral reflections, which the poet supposes him to make on the discovery of his wife's infidelity. It consists of either three or four

the knowledge of the key to their interpretation, the student finds them ambiguous. In the application of them when understood, he discovers many seeming contradictions; and, with every exertion of practised memory, he must experience the utmost difficulty in combining rules dispersed in apparent confusion through different portions of PANINI's eight lectures. A commentary was therefore indispensably requisite. Many were composed by ancient grammarians to elucidate the text of PAN'INI. A most copious one on the emendations of his rules was compiled in very ancient times by an uncertain author. This voluminous work, known by the title of Mahábháshya, or the great commentary, is ascribed to PATANJALI, a fabulous personage, to whom mythology has assigned the shape of a serpent. In this commentary every rule is examined at great length. All possible interpretations are proposed: and the true sense and import of the rule are deduced through a tedious train of argument, in which all foreseen objections are considered and refuted; and the wrong interpretations of the text, with all the arguments which can be invented to support them, are obviated or exploded.

Voluminous as it is, the Mahabhashya has not exhausted the subject on which it treats. Its deficiencies have been supplied by the annotations of modern grammarians. The most celebrated among these scholiasts of the Bhashya is Carrara, a learned Cashmirian. His annotations are almost equally copious with the commentary itself. Yet they too are loaded by numerous glosses; among which the

THE difficulty of combining the dispersed rules of grammar, to inflect any one verb or noun through all its variations, renders further aid necessary. This seems to have been anciently afforded in vocabularies, one of which exhibited the verbs classed in

old and new Vivaranás are most esteemed.

the

the order implied by the system of PAN'INI, the other contained nouns arranged on a similar plan. Both probably cited the precepts which must be remembered in conjugating and declining each verb and noun. A catalogue of verbs, classed in regular order, but with few references to the rules of etymology, is extant, and is known by the title of D'hátupáta. It may be considered as an appendix to the grammar of PAN'INI; and so may his own treatise on the pronunciation of vocal sounds, and the treatise of Yasca on obsolete words and accepations peculiar to the Véda. A numerous class of derivative nouns, to which he has only alluded, have been reduced to rule under the head of Un'adi, or the termination ii, &c.; and the precepts, respecting the gender of nouns, have been in like manner arranged in Sútras, which are formed on the same principles with Pan'ini's rules, and which are considered as almost equally ancient. Another supplement to his grammar is entitled Ganapáta, and contains lists of words comprehended in various grammatical rules under the designation of some single word with the term "&c." annexed to it. These supplements are due to various authors. The subject of gender alone has been treated by more than one writer reputed to be inspired, namely by CATYAYANA, GO'BHILA, and others.

These subsidiary parts of the Pániniya grammar do not require a laboured commentary; excepting only the catalogue of verbs, which does need annotation; and which is in truth a proper ground work for a complete review of all the rules of etymology, that are applicable to each verb\*. The Vrittinyása,

The number of verbal roots amounts to 1750 nearly; exclusive of many obsolete words omitted in the D'hátupáta, but noticed in the Sútras as the roots of certain derivatives. The crude verbs, however, are more numerous, because many roots, containing the same radical letters, are variously conjugated in different senses: the whole number CC-0. Gulukul-Kangis-University Handwar Collection Digitized by Se Foundation USA

a very celebrated work, is, I believe, a commentary of this sort\*. It is mentioned by Maitre'va Racshita, the author of the D'hâta pradipa, as the work chiefly consulted by him in compiling his brief annotations on the D'hâtapâta. A very voluminous commentary on the catalogue of verbs was compiled under the patronage of Savan'a, minister of a chieftain named Sangama, and is entitled Mâd'havîyâ vritti. It thoroughly explains the signification and inflection of each verb; but at the same time enters largely into scholastick refinements

on general grammar.

Such vast works as the Mahabhashya and its scholia, with the voluminous annotations on the catalogue of verbs, are not adapted for general instruction. A conciser commentary must have been always requisite. The best that is now extant is entitled the Cásicá vritti, or commentary composed at Varánasi. The anonymous author of it, in a short preface, explains his design: 'to gather the essence of a science dispersed in the early commentaries, in the Bháshya, in copious dictionaries of verbs and of nouns, and in other works.' He has well fulfilled the task which he undertook. His gloss explains in perspicuous language the meaning and application of each rule: he adds examples, and quotes, in their proper places, the necessary emendations from the Várticas and Bháshya. Though he never deviates into frivolous disquisitions, nor into tedious reasoning, but expounds the text as succinctly

sand. From each of these are deduced many compound verbs by prefixing one or more prepositions to the verbal root. Such compounds often deviate very widely in their signification, and some even in their inflections, from the radical verb. The derivative verbs again are numerous; such as causals, frequentatives, &c. Hence it may be readily perceived how copious this branch of grammar must be.

\* I have not yet had an opportunity of inspecting either this or its gloss. It has been described to me as a commentary on the Cásica

vritti.

succinctly as could consist with perspicuity, his work is nevertheless voluminous; and yet, copious as it is, the commentaries on it, and the annotations on its commentaries, are still more voluminous. Amongst the most celebrated is the *Padamanjari* of Haradatta Mis'ra; a grammarian whose authority is respected almost equally with that of the author, on whose text he comments. The annotators on this again are numerous; but it would be useless to insert a long list of their names, or of the titles of their works.

EXCELLENT as the Cás ica vritti undoubtedly is, it partakes of the defects which have been imputed to PANINI's text. Following the same order, in which the original rules are arranged, it is well adapted to assist the student in acquiring a critical knowledge of the Sanscrit tongue. But for one who studies the rudiments of the language, a different arrangement is requisite, for the sake of bringing into one view the rules which must be remembered in the inflections of one word, and those which must be combined even for a single variation of a single term. Such a grammar has been compiled within a few centuries past by RAMACHANDRA, an eminent grammarian. It is entitled Pracriyacaumudi. The rules are Pán'ını's, and the explanation of them is abridged from the ancient commentaries; but the arrangement is wholly different. It proceeds from the elements of writing to definitions; thence to orthography: it afterwards exhibits the inflections of nouns according to case, number, and gender; notices the indeclinables; and proceeds to the uses of the cases: it subjoins the rules of opposition, by which compound terms are formed; the etymology of patronymicks and other derivatives from nouns; and the reduplication of particles, &c. In the second part, it treats of the conjugation of verbs arranged in ten classes: to these primitives succeed derivative verbs, formed from verbal roots,

or from nouns. The rules concerning different voices follow: they are succeeded by precepts regarding the use of the tenses; and the work concludes with the etymology of verbal nouns, gerunds, supines, and participles. A supplement to it contains the anomalies of the dialect, in which the Véda

is composed.

THE outline of PAN'INI's arrangement is simple; but numerous exceptions and frequent digressions have involved it in much seeming confusion. The two first lectures (the first section especially, which is in a manner the key of the whole grammar) contain definitions; in the three next are collected the affixes, by which verbs and nouns are inflected. Those which appertain to verbs, occupy the third lecture: the fourth and fifth contain such as are affixed to nouns. The remaining three lectures treat of the changes which roots and affixes undergo in special cases, or by general rules of orthography, and which are all effected by the addition or by the substitution of one or more elements \*. The apparent simplicity of the design vanishes in the perplexity of the structure. The endless pursuit of exceptions and of limitations so disjoins the general precepts, that the reader cannot keep in view their intended connexion and mutual relation. He wanders in an intricate maze; and the clew of the labyrinth is continually slipping from his hands.

The order in which Rámachandra has delivered the rules of grammar is certainly preferable; but the sútras of Pán'ini thus detached from their context are wholly unintelligible. Without the commentator's exposition, they are indeed what Sir William Jones has somewhere termed them, dark as the darkest oracle. Even with the aid of a comment, they cannot be fully understood until they are perused with the proper context. Notwithstanding

this

<sup>\*</sup> Even the expunging of a letter is considered as the substitution of a blank. Gurukul Kangri University Haridwar Collection. Digitized by \$3 Foundation USA

this defect, Bhat'r'o'JI' DI'cshita \*, who revised the Camudí, has for very substantial reasons adhered to the Pa'n'iniya sútras. That able grammarian has made some useful changes in the arrangement of the Pracriya: he has amended the explanation of the rules, which was in many places incorrect or imperfect: he has remedied many omissions; has enlarged the examples; and has noticed the most important instances where the elder grammarians disigree, or where classical poets have deviated from he strict rules of grammar. This excellent work is ntitled Sidd'hanta Caumudí. The author has very properly followed the example of RAMACHANDRA, in excluding all rules that are peculiar to the obsolete dialect of the Véda, or which relate to accentuation; for this also belongs to the Véda alone. He has collected them in an appendix to the Sidd'hanta Caumudi; and has subjoined in a second appendix rules concerning the gender of nouns. The other supplements of Pan'ini's grammar are interwoven by this author with the body of his work.

The Hindus delight in scholastick disputation. Their grammarians indulge this propensity as much as their lawyers and their sophists †. Bhát't'o'ji' Di'cshita has provided an ample store of controversy in an argumentative commentary on his own grammar. This work is entitled Prant'a menóramá. He also composed a very voluminous commentary on the eight lectures of Pán'ini, and gave it the title of Sabda Caustubha. The only portion of it I have yet seen reaches no farther than to the end of the first section of Pán'ini's first lecture. But this is so diffusive, that, if the whole have been executed on a similar plan, it must triple the ponderous vo-

† Many separate treatises on different branches of general grammar are very properly considered as appertaining to the science

<sup>\*</sup> Descendants of BH'A'T'T'O'JI' in the fifth or sixth degree are, am told, now living at Benares. He must have flourished then between one and two centuries ago.

lume of the Mahabhashya itself. I have reason, however, for doubting that it was ever completed.

THE commentaries on the Sidd'hanta Caumudi and Manorama are very numerous. The most celebrated shall be here briefly noticed. 1. The Tatwa bód'hini expounds the Sidd'hanta: it is the work of INYÁNE'NDRA SARASWATI, an ascetick, and the pupil of VAMANEINDRA SWAMI'. 2. The Sabdendu s'éc'hara is another commentary on Bhát't'o's1's grammar. It was composed by a successor, if not a descendant, of that grammarian. An abridgment of it, which is very generally studied, is the work of NAGE'S'A, son of SIVA BHATTA, and pupil of HARIDI'CSMITA. He was patronised, as appears from his preface, by the proprietor of Sringavéra pura\*. Though called an abridgment, this Laghu S'abdéndu is a voluminous performance. 3. The Laghu S'abdaratna is a commentary on the Manóramá of BHAT'T'O'JI DI'CSHITA, by the author's grandson, HARI' DICSHITA. This work is not improperly termed an abridgment, since it is short in comparison with most other commentaries on grammar. A larger performance on the same topicks, and with the same title of S'abda ratna, was composed by a professor of this school. 4. BALA SAR-MAN PAGONDIYA, who is either fourth or fifth in succession from BHATTO'JI', as professor of grammar at Benares, has written commentaries on the Caustubha, S'abda retna, and Sabdéndu s'éc'hara. His father, BAIDYARAT'HA BHATTA, largely annotated the Paribháshéndu s'éc'hara of NAGO'J'I' BHATTA, which is an argumentative commentary on a collection of grammatical axioms and definitions cited by the glossarists of PAININI. This compilation, entitled Paribháshá, has also furnished the text for other controversial performances bearing similar titles.

P 2 WHILE

<sup>\*</sup> A town on the Ganjes, marked Singhore in Rennel's maps. It, is situated above Illahabad.

While so many commentaries have been written on the Sidd'hánta Caumudí, the Pracriya Caumudí has not been neglected. The scholiasts of this too are numerous. The most known is Crishna Pandita; and his work has been abridged by his pupil Jayanta, who has given the title of Tatwa chandra to a very excellent compendium\*. On the other hand, Crishna Pandita has had the fate common to all noted grammarians; since his work has employed a host of commentators, who have largely commented on it.

The Caumudis, independently even of their numerous commentaries, have been found too vast and intricate for young students. Abridgments of the Sidd'hánta Caumudi have been therefore attempted by several authors with unequal degrees of success. Of three such abridgments, one only seems to deserve present notice. It is the Mad'hya Caumudi, and is accompanied by a similar compendium of annotations, entitled Mad'hya Ménoramá. The name indicates, that it holds a middle place between the diffuse original, and the jejune abstracts called Laghu Caumudi, &c. It contains such of Pa'-nín's rules as are most universal, and adds to each a short but perspicuous exposition. It omits only the least common exceptions and limitations.

When Sanscrit was the language of Indian courts, and was cultivated not only by persons who devoted themselves to religion and literature, but also by princes, lawyers, soldiers, physicians, and scribes; in short, by the first three tribes, and by many classes included in the fourth; an easy and popular grammar must have been needed by persons who could not waste the best years of their lives in the study of words. Such grammars must always have been in use; those, however, which are now studied.

<sup>\*</sup> Finished by him, as appears from a postscript to the book, in the year 1687 of the Samuat era. Though he studied at Benares, he cc-0. Guidhard have been born on the banks of the Tapati, a river marked Taptee in Rennel's map.

died are not, I believe, of very ancient date. The most esteemed is the Sáraswata, together with its commentary named Chandricá. It seems to have been formed on one of the Caumudís, by translating Panini's rules into language that is intelligible, independently of the gloss, and without the necessity of adverting to a different context.

Another popular grammar, which is in high repute in Bengal, is entitled Mugd'habbd'ha, and is accompanied by a commentary. It is the work of Vópadéva, and proceeds upon a plan grounded on that of the Caumudís; but the author has not been content to translate the rules of Pánini, and to adopt his technical terms. He has on the contrary invented new terms, and contrived new abbreviations. The same author likewise composed a metrical catalogue of verbs alphabetically arranged. It is named Cavicalpadruma, and is intended as a sub-

stitute for the D'hátupáta.

The chief inconvenience attending Vópade'va's innovation is, that commentaries and scholia, written to elucidate poems and works of science, must be often unintelligible to those who have studied only his grammar, and that the writings of his scholars must be equally incomprehensible (wherever a grammatical subject is noticed) to the students of the Pániníya. Accordingly the Pandits of Bengal are cut off in a manner from communication on grammatical topics with the learned of other provinces in India. Even etymological dictionaries, such as the commentaries on the metrical vocabularies, which I shall next proceed to mention, must be unintelligible to them.

It appears from the prefaces of many different grammatical treatises, that works, entitled *Dhâtu* and *Nâma pârâyan´a*, were formerly studied. They must have comprehended, as their title implies, "the whole of the verbs and nouns" appertaining to the language; and, since they are mentioned as very vo-

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luminous, they must probably have contained references to all the rules applicable to every single verb and noun. Haradatta's explanation of the title confirms this notion. But it does not appear that any work is now extant under this title. The D'hátupáta, with its commentaries, supplies the place of the D'hátupárayana. A collection of dictionaries and vocabularies in like manner supplies the want of the Náma párayana. These then may be noticed in this place as a branch of grammar.

THE best and most esteemed vocabulary is the Amera cósha. Even the bigotry of Sancar Achá-Rya spared this, when he proscribed the other works of Amera Sinha\*. Like most other Sanscrit dictionaries

tionaries,

\* AMER-SINH was an eminent poet and one of the nine gems (for so these poets were called), who were the ornament of VICRAMA'. DITYA's court. Unfortunately he held the tenets of a heterodox sect; and his poems are said to have perished in the persecutions fomented by intolerant philosophers against the persons and writings of both JAINAS and BAUDD'HAS. The persecution instigated by SANCARA and UDAYAN A'CHA'RYA, were enforced, perhaps from political motives, by princes of the Vaishn'ava and S'aiva sects, who compelled the BAUD-D'HA monarchs to retire from Hindustan, and to content themselves with their dominions of Lásat a and Bhót a. It would be curious to investigate the date of this important revolution. The present conjecture, for it is little more than mere conjecture, is partly founded upon some acknowledgments made by Pandits, who confess that SANCARA and UDAYANA persecuted the heterodox sects and proscribed their books; and partly on the evidence of the engraved plate found at Mudgagiri, and of the inscription on the pillar found at Bedál (See As. Res. v. I. p. 123 & 133), from which it appears, that De'vapa'La De'va belonged to the sect of Budd'HA; and that he reigned over Bengal and Carinatia as well as Lasat and Bhot; and had successfully invaded Camboja, after traversing as a conqueror the Vind' by a range of mountains. His descendants, as far as the fourth generation, governed a no less extensive empire; as appears from the inscription on the pillar at Bedal. I must however acknowledge, that this last mentioned inscription does not indicate any attachment to the sect of Budd'HA. This may be accounted for by supposing that the worshippers of CRISHN'A and of RA'MA were then as cordial to the followers of Budd'HA, as they now are towards each other. The king and his minister might belong to different sects, .

synonymous words are collected into one or more verses, and placed in fifteen different chapters, which treat of as many different subjects. The sixteenth contains a few homonymous terms, arranged alphabetically in the Indian manner by the final consonants. The seventeenth chapter is a pretty full catalogue of indeclinables, which European philologists would call adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections; but which Sanscrit grammarians consider as indeclinable nouns. The last chapter of the Ameracósh is a treatise on the gender of nouns. Another vocabulary by the same author is often cited by his commentators under the title of Ameramálá.

Numerous commentaries have been written on the Amera cósh. The chief object of them is to explain the derivations of the nouns, and to supply the principal deficiencies of the text. Sanscrit etymologists scarcely acknowledge a single primitive amongst the nouns. When unable to trace an etymology which may be consistent with the acceptation of the word, they are content to derive it according to grammatical rules from some root to which the word has no affinity in sense. At other times they adopt fanciful etymologies from Puránas or from Tantras. But in general the derivations are accurate and instructive. The best known among these commentaries of the Amera cósha is the Padra chandricá, compiled from sixteen older commentaries by Vrihaspati surnamed Mucuta, or

AMERA is mentioned in an inscription at Budd'ha gayá as the founder of a temple at that place. (As. Res. v. I. p. 284). This circumstance may serve to explain why his works have been proscribed with peculiar inveteracy, as it is acknowledged by many Pandits that they have been. He was probably a zealous sectarist.

This is, however, by no means certain: and Bha'nuji' D'ischita, in his commentary on the Amera cosha, denies that there is any evidence to prove that the author belonged to the sect of Jainas.

at full length RAYA MUCUT'A MAN'I. It appears from the incidental mention of the years then expired of astronomical eras, that Mucu'TA made this compilation in the 4532d year of the Califug, which corresponds with A. D. 1430. ACHYUTA JALLACI' has abridged Mucura's commentary, but without acknowledgment, and has given the title of Vyác'hyá pradípa to his compendium. On the other hand, BHÁNUJÍ-DI'CSHITA has revised the same compilation, and has corrected the numerous errors of Mucura: who often derives words from roots that are unknown to the language; or according to rules which have no place in its grammar. Buá-NUJI' has greatly improved the plan of the work, by inserting from other authorities the various acceptations of words exhibited by AMERA in one or two senses only, This excellent compilation is entitled Vyách'ya suď há.

THE Amera cósha, as has been already hinted, gives a very incomplete list of words that have various acceptations. This defect is well supplied by the Médini, a dictionary so named from its author MÉDINICAR. It contains words that bear many senses, arranged in alphabetical order by the final consonants; and a list of homonymous indeclinables is subjoined to it. A similar dictionary, compiled by Manés wara, and entitled Viswa pracás a, is much consulted, though it be very defective, as has been justly remarked by M'EDINICAR. It contains, however, a very useful appendix on words spelt more than one way; and another on letters which are liable to be confounded, such as v and b; and another again on the gender of nouns. These subjects are not separately treated by M'EDINI-CAR; but he has on the other hand specified the genders with great care in the body of the work. The exact age of the Médini is not certainly known; but it is older than Mucur'A's compilation, since it is quoted by this author.

AMERA'S

AMERA's dictionary does not contain more than ten thousand different words. Yet the Sanscrit language is very copious. The insertion of derivatives, that do not at all deviate from their regular and obvious import, has been very properly deemed superfluous. Compound epithets, and other compound terms, in which the Sanscrit language is peculiarly rich, are likewise omitted; excepting such as are especially appropriated, by a limited acceptation, either as titles of Deities, or as names of plants, animals, &c. In fact compound terms are formed at pleasure, according to the rules of grammar; and must generally be interpreted in strict conformity with those rules. Technical terms too are mostly excluded from general dictionaries, and consigned to separate nomenclatures. The Ameracosh then is less defective than might be inferred from the small number of words explained in it. Still, however, it needs a supplement. The Hárávalí may be used as such. It is a vocabulary of uncommon words, compiled by Purushottama, the author of an etymological work, and also of a little collection of monograms, entitled E'cácshara. His Hárávalî was compiled by him under the patronage of D'HRITA SINHA. It is noticed by MEDINICAR, and seems to be likewise anterior to the Vis wa.

The remaining deficiencies of the Ameracosh are supplied by consulting other dictionaries and vocabularies; such as Helaynd'ha's, Vachespati's, the Dharan'icosha, or some other. Sanscrit dictionaries are indeed very numerous. Purushottama and Médinicar name the Utpalini, Sabdárnáva and Sansárávárta, as works consulted by them. Purushottama adds the names of Vachespati, Vyád'i and Vicramáditya; but it is not quite clear whether he mentions them as the authors and patrons of these, or of other dictionaries. M'edinicar adds a fourth vocabulary called Námamálá, and with similar obscurity subjoins the cele-

brated names of BHAGURI, VARARUCHI, SAS WATA, BÓPALITA and RANTIDÉVA. He then proceeds to enumerate the dictionaries of AMERA, S'UBHÁNGA, HELÁYND'HA, GÓVERD'HASIA, RABHASA PÁLA, and the Ratnacosha; with the vocabularies of RUDRA, DHANANJAYA, and GANGÁD'HARA; as also the Dharan icósha, Hárávalì, Vrihadamara, Tricán d'asésha and Ratnamálà. Many of these are cited by the commentators on AMERA, and by the scholiasts on different poems. The following are also frequently cited; some as etymologists, the rest as lexicographers: Swámí, Durga, Sarvadhara VAMANA, CHANDRA, and the authors of the Vaijayntì Namanid hana, Haima, Vrihat-nighanti, &c. To this list might be added the Anécart'ha, dwani manjari Nánárt'ha, and other vocabularies of homonymous terms; the Dwiructi, Bhuriprayoga cosha, and other lists of words spelt in more than one way; and the various Nighantis or nomenclatures, such as the Dhanwantari-nighanta and Rajanighanta, which contain lists of the materia medica; and the Nighanti of the Véda, which explains obsolete words and unusual acceptations \*.

BEFORE I proceed to mention other languages of India, it may be proper to mention, that the school of Benares now uses the Sidd hanta caumudi, and other works of Bhattóji, as the same school formerly did the Cásicá vritti. The Pracriyà caumudi, with its commentaries, maintains its ground among the learned of Mithilà or Tirhût. In both places, however, and indeed throughout India, the Mahábháshya continues to be the standard of Sanserit grammar. It is therefore studied by all who are ambitious of acquiring a critical knowledge of the language. The Haricáricá, with its commentaries

<sup>\*</sup> The Niructi, as explained in Sir WILLIAM JONES's treatise on the literature of the Hindus, belongs to the same class with the Nighanti of the Véda: and a small vocabulary under both these titles is commonly annexed to the Rigwéda to complete the set of Upawédas. CC-0-FHILIKU Kangri University Haritwan Collection Diction of Microundation und Sahe commentators of it are often cited upon topics of general grammar.

taries by HÉLÁRÁJA and Punjarája, was probably in use with a school that once flourished at *Ujjayini*: but it does not seem to be now generally studied in

any part of India.

The second class of Indian languages comprehends the written dialects which are now used in the intercourse of civil life, and which are cultivated by lettered men. The author of a passage already quoted includes all such dialects under the general denomination of Prácrit: but this term is commonly restricted to one language, namely to the Saraswatí bála bání, or the speech of children on the banks of the Saraswatí\*. There is reason to believe that ten polished dialects formerly prevailed in as many different civilized nations, who occupied all the fertile provinces of Hindustán and the Dekhin. Evident traces of them still exist. They shall be noticed in the order in which these Hindu nations

are usually enumerated.

The Sáreswata was a nation which occupied the banks of the river Sáraswati. Bráhmanas who are still distinguished by the name of their nation, inhabit chiefly the Penjáb or Panchanada, west of the river from which they take their appellation. Their original language may have once prevailed through the southern and western parts of Hindustan proper, and is probably the idiom to which the name of Prácrit is generally appropriated. This has been more cultivated than any other among the dialects which will be here enumerated, and it occupies a principal place in the dialogue of most dramas. Many beautiful poems composed wholly in this language, or intermixed with stanzas of pure Sanscrit, have perpetuated the memory of it, though perhaps it have long ceased to be a vernacular tongue. Grammars have been compiled for the purpose of teaching this language and its prosody, and several

\* The term will bear a different interpretation: but this seems to be the most probable explanation of it. The other (youthful speech of Saraswati) is generally received.

treatises of rhetorick have been written to illustrate its beauties. The Prácrita manóramà and Prácrita Pingala are instances of the one, and the Saraswatí Cant'ábharan'a of Bho'sabkva may be named as an example of the other, although both Sanscri' and Prácrit idioms furnish the examples with which that author elucidates his precepts. For the character of the Prácrit language I must refer the reader to Sir William Jones's remarks in his preface to the

translation of the Fatal Ring.

THE Canyacubjas possessed a great empire, the metropolis of which was the ancient city of Cányacubja or Canój. Theirs seems to be the language which forms the ground-work of modern Hindustani, and which is known by the appellation of Hindi or Hindevi. Two dialects of it may be easily distinguished, one more refined, the other less so. To this last the name of Hindi is sometimes restricted, while the other is often confounded with Pracrit. Numerous poems have been composed in both dialects, not only before the Hindustáni was ingrafted on the Hindi by a large intermixture of Persian, but also in very modern times, by Muhammedan as well as Hindu poets. Dóhrás or detached couplets, and Cabits or stanzas, in the Hinderi, may be found among the works of Muslemán authors; it will be sufficient to instance those of MELIC MUHAMMED JAISI', MUHAMMED AFZEL, and AMI'RKHA'N AN-JA'M. Most poems in this dialect are, however, the exclusive production of Hindu poets\*, On examin-

<sup>\*</sup> Among the most admired specimens of Hindi poetry, the seven hundred couplets of Biha'ri'la'l, and the amatory verses of Su'nder and of Matira'm, are conspicuous. But their dialect is not pure Hindevi; since they sometimes borrow from the Persian language. Su'nder wrote his poems in the reign of Sha'hjeha'n, and seems to have been patronized by that prince, whom he praises in his preface. Biha'ri'la'l flourished at the court of Ambhér, towards the beginning of the sixteenth century of the Christian era. His poems were arranged in their present order for the use of the unfortunate prince A'zem

ing them the affinity of Hindi with the Sanscrit language is peculiarly striking; and no person acequainted with both can hesitate in affirming that Hindi is chiefly borrowed from Sanserit. Many words of which the etymology shows them to be the purest Sanscrit, are received unaltered; many more undergo no change but that of making the final vowel silent; a still greater number exhibits no other difference than what arises from the uniform permutation of certain letters; the rest too, with comparatively few exceptions, may be easily traced to a Sanscrit origin. That this is the root from which Hindi has sprung, (not Hindi the dialect whence Sanscrit has been refined,) may be proved by etymology, the analogy of which is lost in Hindi and preserved in Sanscrit. A few examples will render this evident.

Crivá signifies action, and Carma act, both of which are regularly derived from the root Cri to do. They have been adopted into Hindustáni, with many other regular derivatives of the same root; (such, for example, as Carana [contracted into Carna] the act of doing; Cartá the agent; Cáran cause, or the means of doing; Cárya [Cárj, Cáj,] the thing to be done, and the intent or purpose of the action.) But I select these two instauces, because both words are adopted into Hindustani in two several modes. Thus Criá signifies action, and Ciriá expresses one metaphorical sense of the same Sanscrit word, viz. oath or ordeal. Again. Ciriá-caram signifies funeral rites; but Cam is the most usual form in which the Sanscrit Carma is exhibited in the Hindustani; and it thus assumes the same form with Cam, desire, a very different word taken from the Sanscrit derivative of the root Cam, to seek: here then, Hindustani confounds

A'ZEM SHA'H; and the modern edition is therefore called A'zemshabi. The old edition has been elegantly translated into Sanscrit verse, by HERIPRESA'DA' PANDITA, under the patronage of CHE'T SIN'H, when Raja of Benares.

founds two very different words in one instance, and makes two words out of one in the other instance.

SAT literally signifies existent, it is employed in the acceptation of truth; Satya, a regular derivative from it, signifies true; or, employed substantively, truth. The correspondent Hindi word, sach, is corrupted from the Sanscrit satya, by neglecting the final vowel, by substituting j for y, according to the genius of the Hindevi dialect, and by transforming the harsh combination tj into the softer sound of ch, Here then is obviously traced the identity of the Hindustáni sach, and Bengáli shótyo, which are only the same Sanscrit word satya variously pronounced.

YUVAN signifies young, and yauvana youth; the first makes Yuvá in the nominative case: this is adopted into Hindustáni with the usual permutation of consonants, and becomes Jubá, as Yauvana is transformed into Jóban. The same word has been less corrupted in Persian and Latin, where it stands Juwan and Juvenis. In many inflections the root of Yuvan is contracted into Yun, the possessive case, for example, forms in the three numbers, Yunas, Yunos, Yunam: here, then, we trace the origin of the Latin comparative Junior; and I cannot hesitate in referring to these Sanscrit 100ts, the Welsh Jevangk, and Armorican Jovank, as well as the Saxon Yeong, and finally the English Young. This analogy, which seems evident through the medium of the Sanscrit language, is wholly obscured in Hindustanì.

These examples might be easily multiplied, but unprofitably, I fear; for, after proving that ninetenths of the Hindi dialect may be traced back to the Sanscrit idiom, there yet remains the difficulty of accounting for the remaining tenth, which is perhaps the basis of the Hindi language. Sir William Jones thought it so, and he thence inferred, that the pure Hindi was primeval in Upper India, into which the Sanscrit was introduced by conquer-

ors from other kingdoms in some very remote age \*. This opinion I do not mean to controvert. I only contend, that where similar words are found in both languages, the Hindi has borrowed from Sanscrit, rather than the Sanscrit from Hindi. It may be remarked too, that in most countries the progress has been from languages rich in inflections, to dialects simple in their structure. In modern idioms, auxiliary verbs and appendant particles supply the place of numerous inflections of the root: it may, for this reason, be doubted, whether the present structure of the Hindi tongue be not a modern refinement. But the question, which has been here hinted rather than discussed, can be decided only by a careful examination of the oldest compositions that are now extant in the Hindi dialect. Until some person execute this task, a doubt must remain, whether the ground-work of Hindi, and consequently of Hindustan, be wholly distinct from that of Sanscrit.

On the subject of the modern dialect of Upper India, I with pleasure refer to the works of a very ingenious member of this society, Mr. GILCHRIST, whose labours have now made it easy to acquire the knowledge of an elegant language, which is used in every part of Hindustán and the Dekhin; which is the common vehicle of colloquial intercourse among all well educated natives, and among the illiterate also in many provinces of India, and which is almost every where intelligible to some among the inhabitants of every village. The dialects, which will be

next noticed, are of more limited use.

GAURA†, or, as it is commonly called, Bengalah, or Bengálì, is the language spoken in the provinces, of

\* Third anniversary discourse.

<sup>†</sup> It is necessary to remark, that although Gaura be the name of Bengal, yet the Bráhmanas, who bear that appellation, are not inhabitants of Bengal but of Hindustán proper. They reside chiefly in the Suba of Delhi; while the Bráhmanas of Bengal are avowed colo-

of which the ancient city of Gaur was once the capital; it still prevails in all the provinces of Bengal. excepting perhaps some frontier districts, but is said to be spoken in its greatest purity in the eastern parts only; and, as there spoken, contains few words which are not evidently derived from Sanscrit. This dialect has not been neglected by learned men. Many Sanscrit poems have been translated, and some original poems have been composed in it; learned Hindus in Bengal speak it almost exclusively; verbal instruction in sciences is communicated through this medium, and even publick disputations are conducted in this dialect. Instead of writing it in the Dévanágari, as the Prácrit and Hindevi are written\*, the inhabitants of Bengal have adopted a peculiar character, which is nothing else but Déva-nagari, difformed for the sake of expeditious writing. Even the learned amongst them employ this character for the Sanscrit language, the pronunciation of which too they in like manner degrade to the Bengáli standard. The labours of Mr. HALHED and Mr. Fors-TER have already rendered a knowledge of the Bengálí dialect accessible, and Mr. Forster's further exertions will still more facilitate the acquisition of a language, which cannot but be deemed greatly useful, since it prevails throughout the richest and most valuable portion of the British possessions in India.

MAIT'HILA

nists from Canój. It is difficult to account for this contradiction. The Gaura Bráhmanas alledge a tradition, that their ancestors migrated in the days of the Pándavas, at the commencement of the present Cali Yuga. Though no plausible conjecture can be founded on this tradition, yet I am induced to retract a conjecture formerly hazarded by me; that the Gar of our maps was the original country of the Gaura priests.

\* Prácrit and Hindi books are commonly written in the Dévanágari; but a corrupt writing, called Nágari, is used by Hindus in all common transactions where Hindi is employed by them; and a still more corrupted one, wherein vowels are for the most part omitted, is

employed

Matt'hilà, or Tirhutiya, is the language used in Mit'hilà, that is, in the Sircar of Tirhut, and in some adjoining districts, limited however by the rivers Cusi (Causici,) and Gandhac (Gandhaci,) and by the mountains of Népal: it has great affinity with Bengáli; and the character in which it is written differs little from that which is employed throughout Bengal. In Tirhut, too, the learned write Sanserit in the Tirhutiya character, and pronounce it after their own inelegant manner. As the dialect of Mit'hilà has no extensive use, and does not appear to have been at any time cultivated by elegant poets, its unnecessary to notice it further in this place.

UTCALA, or O'd'radés a, is co-extensive with the Subá of O'résá, extending from Médinipúr to Mánacapattana, and from the sea to Sammall-pun. language of this province, and the character in which it is written, are both called Uriya. So far as a judgment can be formed from imperfect specimens of this language, it contains many Sanscrit words variously corrupted, with some Persian and Arabick terms borrowed through the medium of Hindustani, and with others of doubtful origin. The letters are evidently taken from the Dévanagari; and the Brahmens of this province use the Uriya character in writing the Sanscrit language: its deviations from the Dévanágari may be explained, from the practice of writing on palm leaves with an iron style, or on paper with a pen cut from a porcupine's quill. It differs in this respect from the hand-writing of northern tribes, and is analogous to that of the southern inhabitants of the peninsula.

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employed by bankers and others in mercantile transactions. I must here confess that I can give no satisfactory explanation of the term. The common etymology of Nágari is unsatisfactory; unless Nagara be taken as the name of some particular place emphatically called the city.

The five Hindu nations, whose peculiar dialects have been thus briefly noticed, occupy the northern and eastern portions of India; they are denominated the five Gaurs. The rest, called the five Drávirs, inhabit the southern and western parts of the peninsula. Some Pandits indeed exclude Car náta, and substitute Càsmira; but others, with more propriety, omit the Cáshmirian tribe; and, by adding the Cánaras to the list of Drávirs, avoid the inconsistency of placing a northern tribe among southern nations. There is reason too for doubting whether Cáshmira be occupied by a distinct nation, and whether the inhabitants of it be not rather a tribe of Cányacubjas.

DRÁVIRA is the country which terminates the peninsula of India. Its northern limits appear to lie between the twelfth and thirteenth degrees of north latitude. The language of the province is the Tamel, to which Europeans have given the name of Malabar \*, from Malay-war, a province of Dravira. They have similarly corrupted the true name of the dialect into Tamul, Tamulic, and Tamulian †: but the word, as pronounced by the natives, is Támla, or Támalah; and this seems to indicate a derivation from Tamra, or Tamraparn'i a river of note, which waters the southern Mathura, situated within the limits of Drávir. The provincial dialect is written in a character which is greatly corrupted from the parent Dévanágari, but which nevertheless is used by the Brahmens of Dravir in writing the Sanscrit language. After carefully inspecting a grammar published by Mr. DRUMMOND at Bombay, and a dictionary by missionaries

<sup>\*</sup> A learned Bráhmen of Dráwira positively assures me, that the dialect of Malabar, though confounded by Europeans with the Támel, is different from it; and is not the language to which Europeans have allotted that appellation.

<sup>+</sup> The Romish and Protestant missionaries who have published dictionaries and grammars of this dialect, refer to another language, which they denominate Grandam and Grandonicum. It appears that Sanscrit is meant, and the term thus corrupted by them is Grant'ha, a volume or book.

missionaries at Madras, I can venture to pronounce that the *Tamla* contains many *Sanscrit* words, either unaltered or little changed, with others more corrupted, and a still greater number of doubtful origin.

THE Maharashtra or Mahratta is the language of a nation which has in the present century greatly emlarged its antient limits. If any inference may be drawn from the name of the character in which the language is written, the country occupied by this preople was formerly called Muru\*; for the peculiar corruption of the Dévanágari, which is employed by the Maharash tras in common transactions, is denominated by them Mur. Their books, it must be remarked, are commonly written in Dévanàgari. The Mahrátta nation was formerly confined to a mountainous tract situated south of the river Nermada, amd extending to the province of Cócán. Their langruage is now more widely spread, but is not yet become the vernacular dialect of provinces situated far breyond the antient bounds of their country. Like other Indian tongues, it contains much pure Sanscrit, and more corruptions of that language intermixed with words borrowed from Persian and Arabick, and with others derived from an unknown source. the bards of Muru were once famous, their supposed successors, though less celebrated, are not less diligrent. The Mahráttas possess many poems in their Diwn dialect, either translated from the Sanscrit, or Driginal compositions in honour of CRISHNA, RAMA, and other deified heroes. Treatises in prose too, on mbjects of logick and of philosophy, have been composed in the Mahratta dialect.

CARNAT'A, or Cárnara, is the antient language of Carnát aca, a province which has given name to listricts on both coasts of the peninsula. This dia-

<sup>\*</sup> Mentioned in the royal grant preserved at a famous temple in arnát'a. See As. Res. v. III. p. 48. However, the Mahráttas emselves affirm, that the Mirry character was introduced amongst hem from the illand of Silán.

lect still prevails in the intermediate mountainous tract, but seems to be superseded by other provincial tongues on the eastern coast. A peculiar character formed from the Dévanágari, but like the Támla, much corrupted from it through the practice of writing on palm-leaves with an iron style, is called by the same name with the language of Carn'á'tic. mens of this tribe have assured me that the language bears the same affinity to Sanscrit as other dialects of the Dacshin. I can affirm too, from their conversation, that the Cánaras, like most other southern tribes, have not followed the ill example of Bengal and the provinces adjacent to it, in pronouncing the Sanscrit language in the same inelegant manner with

their own provincial dialects.

TAILANGA, Télingah, or Tilanga, is at once the name of a nation, of its language, and of the character in which that language is written. Though the province of Telingana alone retain the name in published maps of India, yet the adjacent provinces on either bank of Crishna and Godaveri, and those situated on the north-eastern coast of the peninsula, are undoubtedly comprehended within the ancient limits of Tilanga, and are inhabited chiefly by people The language too is widely spread: of this tribe. and many circumstances indicate that the Tailangas formerly occupied a very extensive tract, in which they still constitute the principal part of the popula-The character in which they write their own language is taken from Dévanágari, and the Tailange Brahmens employ it in writing the Sanscrit tongue, from which the Tailanga idiom is faid to have borrowed more largely than other dialects used in the south of India. This language appears to have been cultivated by poets, if not by prose writers, for the Tailangus possess many compositions in their own provincial dialect, some of which are said to record the ancient history of the country.

The province of Gúrjara\* does not appear to have been at any time much more extensive than the modern Guzrát, although Bráhmanas distinguished by the name of that country, be now spread over the adjoining provinces on both sides of the Nermadá. This tribe uses a language denominated from their own appellation, but very nearly allied to the Hindí tongue, while the character in which it is written conforms almost exactly with vulgar Nágarí. Considering the situation of their country, and the analogy of language and writing, I cannot hesitate in thinking that the Gurjaras should be considered as the fifth northern nation of India, and the Uriyas should be ranked among the tribes of the Dacshin.

BRIEF and imperfect as is this account of the Prácrits of India, I must be still more concise in speaking of the languages denominated Magad'hi and Apabhransa in the passages quoted at the beginning of this essay. Under these names are comprehended all those dialects which, together with the Prácrits above noticed, are generally known by the common appellation of Bháshá, or speech. This term, as employed by all philologists from Pa'n' INI down to the present professors of grammar, does indeed signify the popular dialect of Sanscrit, in contradistinction to the obsolete dialect of the Véda; but in common acceptation, Bhákhá (for so the word is pronounced on the banks of the Ganges) denotes any of the modern vernacular dialects of India, especially such as are corrupted from the Sanscrit: these are very nu-After excluding mountaineers, who are probably aborigines of India, and whose languages have certainly no affinity with Sanscrit, there yet remain in the mountains and islands contiguous to India, many tribes that seem to be degenerate Hindus; Q 3

<sup>\*</sup> The limits of Gúrjara, as here indicated, are too narrow. It seems to have been co-extensive with the antient, rather than the modern Guzrát, and to have included the whole, or the greatest part of Candesh and Malwa.

they have certainly retained some traces of the language and writing which their ancestors had been

taught to employ.

WITHOUT passing the limits of Hindustan, it would be easy to collect a copious list of different dialects in the various provinces, which are inhabited by the ten principal Hindu nations. The extensive region which is nearly defined by the banks of the Saraswati and Gangá on the north, and which is strictly limited by the shores of the eastern and western seas towards the south, contains fifty-seven provinces according to some lists, and eighty-four according to others. Each of these provinces has its peculiar dialect, which appears, however, in most instances, to be a variety only of some one among the ten principal idioms. Thus Hindustáni, which seems to be the lineal descendant of the Cányacubja, comprises numerous dialects from the Orduzebán, or language of the royal camp and court, to the barbarous jargon which re-ciprocal mistakes have introduced among European gentlemen and their native servants. tongue, under its more appropriate denomination of Hindi, comprehends many dialects strictly local and provincial. They differ in the proportion of Arabick, Persian and Sanscrit, either pure or slightly corrupted, which they contain; and some shades of difference may be also found in the pronunciation, and even in the basis of each dialect.

Not being sufficiently conversant with all these idioms, I shall only mention two, which are well known, because lyrick poets have employed them in songs, that are still the delight of natives of all ranks. I allude to the *Penjábí* and to the *Brij-bhákhá*. The first is the language of *Panchanada*, or *Penjáb*, a province watered by the five celebrated rivers which fall into the *Sind'hu*. The songs entitled *Khéáls* and *Teppas*, which are no doubt familiar to all who have a taste for the vocal music of India, are composed

almost exclusively in this dialect; as the Dhurpeds and regular Rags are in Hindi, and Rékhtah\*, in

the language of the court of Hindustan.

THE Brij-bhákhá, or Vraja-bháshá, is the dialect supposed to have been anciently spoken among the peasants in the neighbourhood of Mathura. It derives its name from the cowpens (Vraja) and dairies in the forest of Vrinda, where CRISHN'A was educated among the wives and daughters of the cowherds. His amorous adventures with Ra'p'ha' and the Gópis furnish the subject of many favourite songs in this dialect. It is still spoken with much purity throughout a great part of the Antarbéd, or Doab, and in some districts on the opposite banks of the

Yamund and Ganga.

To these cursory observations might be fitly added a specimen of each language, and of the character in which it is written, together with a list of the most common terms in the various dialects of India, compared with words of similar sound and import in the ancient languages of Europe. I have indeed made collections for this purpose, but the insertion of a copious list would exceed the limits of a desultory essay. For this reason, and because the collection is yet incomplete, I suppress it; and shall here close the present essay abruptly, with the intention of resuming the subject, should the further prosecution of these inquiries at any future time enable me to furnish the information called for by this society, concerning the number of Hinduwi dialects, and the countries where they are spoken.

On

<sup>\*</sup> The author of the Texcareh Shuara Hind explains Rekhtah as signifying any poetry composed in the language of the royal court of Hindustán, but in the style and metre of Persian poety.

## VIII.

On the Religious Ceremonies of the Hindus, and of the Bramens especially.

By H. T. Colberooke, Esq.

## ESSAY II.

A FORMER essay on this subject\* described the daily ablutions performed with prayers and acts of religion by every Bráhmen. His next daily duty is the performance of the five great sacraments. The first, consisting in the study of the Véda, has been already noticed; the sacraments of the manes, of deities, and of spirits, slightly touched upon in the first essay, will be made the subject of the present one; and the hospitable reception of guests will be followed in the next by a description of the various ceremonies, which must be celebrated at different periods from the birth to the marriage of a Hindu.

The sacrament of deities consists in oblations to fire with prayers addressed to various divinities; and it is exclusive of the offerings of perfumes and blossoms before idols. It does not fall within my present plan to describe the manner in which the several sects of *Hindus* † adore their gods, or the images of them; and I shall therefore restrict myself to explain the oblations to fire, and then proceed to describe funeral rites and commemorative obsequies, together with the daily offerings of food and water to the manes of ancestors.

I am

Asiatic Researches, vol. v. p. 345.

I am guided by the author now before me \* in premising the ceremony of consecrating the fire, and of hallowing the sacrificial implements; "because this ceremony is, as it were, the ground-work of all

religious acts."

FIRST, the priest smears with cow-dung a level piece of ground four cubits square, free from all impurities, and sheltered by a shed. Having bathed and sipped water, he sits down with his face towards the east, and places a vessel of water with cus'a grass † on his left; then, dropping his right knee, and resting on the span of his left hand, he draws with a root of cusa grass a line one span, or twelve fingers long, and directed towards the east. From the nearest extremity of this line, he draws another at right angles to it, twenty-one fingers long, and directed towards the north. Upon this line he draws three others, parallel to the first, equal to it in length, and distant seven fingers from each other. The first line is really, or figuratively, made a yellow line, and is sacred to the earth; the second is red, and sacred to fire; the third black, and sacred to BRAHMA' the creator; the fourth blue, and sacred to INDRA the regent of the firmament; the fifth white, and sacred to Soma. He next gathers up the dust from the edges of these lines, and throws it away towards the north-east, saying, "what was [herein]

+ Poa Cynosuroides. Kornic. On the new moon of Bhadra, a sufficient quantity of this sort of grass is provided for use during the

whole year.

In the former essay, my chief guide was Hela'yud'ha, who has given very perspicuous explanations of the mantras (or prayers used at religious ceremonies) in feveral treatises, particularly in one entitled Bramana-servaswa. In the present essay, I likewise use a ritual composed by BHAVADE'VA for the use of Samavedi priests, and a commentary on the mantras by Gun'a Vistinu, as also the A'charachandricá (a treatise on religious ceremonies observed by 'Sudras, but including many of those performed by other classes), and the Acháráders'á, a treatise on daily duties.

bad, is cast away:" and he concludes by sprinkling water on the several lines.

Having thus prepared the ground for the reception of the sacrificial fire, he takes a lighted ember out of the covered vessel which contains the fire, and throws it away, saying, "I dismiss far away carnivorous fire: may it go to the realm of Yama, bearing sin [hence]." He then places the fire before him, saying, "Earth! Sky! Heaven!" and adding, "this other [harmless] fire alone remains here; well knowing [its office], may it convey my oblation to the Gods." He then denominates the fire according to the purpose for which he prepares it, saying, "Fire! thou art named so and so;" and he concludes this part of the ceremony by silently burning a log of wood, one span long, and smeared with clarified butter.

He next proceeds to place the Brahmá or superintending priest. Upon very solemn occasions, a learned Brahmán a does actually discharge the functions of superintending priest; but, in general, a bundle containing fifty blades of cusa grass is placed to represent the Brahmá. The officiating priest takes up the vessel of water, and walks round the fire keeping his right side turned towards it: he then pours water near it, directing the stream towards the east; he spreads cus'a grass thereon; and, crossing his right knee over his left without sitting down, he takes up a single blade of grass between the thumb and ring finger of his left hand, and throws it away towards the southwest corner of the shed, saying, what was herein bad, is cast away." Next, touching the water, resting the sole of his right foot on his left ankle, and sprinkling the grass with water, he places the Brahmá on it, saying, "sit on [this] seat until [thy] fee [be paid thee]." The officiating priest then returns by the same road by which he went round the fire; and sitting down again with

with his face towards the east, names the earth in-

audibly.

If any profane word have been spoken during the preceding ceremony, atonement must now be made by pronouncing this text: "Thrice did Vishn'u step, and at three strides traversed the universe: happily was his foot placed on the dusty [earth]." The meaning is, since the earth has been purified by the contact of Vishn'u's foot, may she (the earth so purified) atone for any profane word spoken during this ceremony.

If it be intended to make oblations of rice mixed with milk, curds and butter, this too is the proper time for mixing them; and the priest afterwards proceeds to name the earth in the following prayer, which he pronounces with downcast look, resting both hands on the ground: "We adore this earth; "this auspicious and most excellent earth: Do "thou, O fire! resist [our] enemies. Thou dost "take [on thee] the power [and office] of other

" [deities]."

WITH blades of cus a grass held in his right hand, he must next strew leaves of the same grass on three sides of the fire, arranging them regularly, so that the tip of one row shall cover the roots of the other. He begins with the eastern side, and at three times strews grass there, to cover the whole space from north to south; and in like manner distributes grass on the southern and western sides. He then blesses the ten regions of space; and rising a little, puts some wood \* on the fire with a ladle full of clarified butter, while he meditates in silence on BRAHMA' the lord of creatures.

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<sup>\*</sup> The fuel used at sacrifices must be wood of the racemiferous figtree, the leafy Butea, or the Catechu Mimosa. It should seem, however, that the prickly Adenanthera, or even the Mango, may be used. The wood is cut into small logs, a span long, and not thicker than a man's fist.

The priest then takes up two leaves of cus'a grass. and with another blade of the same grass, cuts off the length of a span, saying "Pure leaves! be sacred to VISHN'U;" and throws them into a vessel of copper or other metal. Again he takes two leaves of grass, and holding the tips between the thumb and ring finger of his right hand, and the roots between the thumb and ring finger of his left, and crossing his right hand over his left, he takes up clarified butter on the curvature of the grass, and thus silently casts some into the fire three several times. He then sprinkles both the leaves with water, and throws them away. He afterwards sprinkles with water the vessel containing clarified butter, and puts it on the fire and takes it off again three times, and thus concludes the ceremony of hallowing the butter; during the course of which, while he holds the leaves of grass in both hands, he recites this prayer, "May the divine generator, [VISHNU,] purify thee by means of [this] faultless pure leaf; and may the sun do so by means of [his] rays of light! be this oblation efficacious."

The priest must next hallow the wooden ladle by thrice turning therein his fore-finger and thumb, describing with their tips the figure of 7 in the inside, and the figure of 9 on the outside of the bowl of the ladle. Then dropping his right knee, he sprinkles water from the palms of his hands on the whole southern side of the fire, from west to east, saying, "Adit! [mother of the Gods] grant me thy approbation." He does the same on the whole western side, from south to north, saying, "Anumati! grant me thy approbation;" and on the northern side, saying "Saraswati! grant me thy approbation." And lastly he sprinkles water all round the fire, while he pronounces this text, "Generous sun!

<sup>\*</sup> The moon wanting a digit of full.

approve this rite; approve the performer of it, that he may share its reward. May the celestial luminary, which purifies the intellectual soul, purify our minds. May the lord of speech make our prayers acceptable."

HOLDING cus'a grass in both hands, he then recites an expiatory prayer, which will be inserted in another place; and throwing away the grass, he thus finishes the hallowing of the sacrificial implements: a ceremony which necessarily precedes all other re-

ligious rites.

HE next makes oblations to fire with such ceremonies, and in such form as are adapted to the religious rite which is intended to be subsequently performed. The sacrifice, with the three mysterious words, usually precedes and follows the particular sacrifice which is suited to the occasion; being most generally practised, it will be the most proper specimen of the form in which oblations are made.

Having silently burnt a log of wood smeared with clarified butter, the priest makes three oblations, by pouring each time a ladle full of butter on the fire, saying, "Earth! be this oblation efficacious:" "Sky! be this oblation efficacious:" "Heaven! be this oblation efficacious." On some occasions he makes a fourth offering in a similar mode, saying "Earth! Sky! Heaven! be this oblation efficacious." If it be requisite to offer a mixture of rice, milk, curds and butter, this is now done, and the oblations, accompanied with the names of the three worlds, are repeated.

As another instance of oblations to fire, the sacrifice to the nine planets may deserve notice. This consists of nine oblations of clarified butter, with the

following prayers:

1. "The divine sun approaches with his golden car, returning alternately with the shades of night, rousing mortal and immortal beings, and surveying "worlds:

"worlds: May this oblation to the solar planet be "efficacious."

- 2. "Gops! produce that [Moon] which has no "foe, which is the son of the solar orb, and became the offspring of space, for the benefit of this "world "; produce it for the advancement of knowledge, for protection from danger, for vast supremacy, for empire, and for the sake of Ingra's organs of sense: May this oblation to the lunar 
  planet be efficacious."
- 3. "This gem of the sky, whose head resembles "fire, is the lord of waters, and replenishes the seeds "of the earth: May this oblation to the planet Mars "be efficacious."
- 4. "BE roused O fire! and thou [O BUD'HA]! "perfect this sacrificial rite, and associate with us; "let this votary and all the Gods sit in this most "excellent assembly. May this oblation to the planet Mercury be efficacious."
- 5. "O VRIHASPATI, sprung from eternal truth, "confer on us abundantly that various wealth "which the most venerable of beings may revere; "which shines gloriously amongst all people, which serves to defray sacrifices, which is preserved by strength. May this oblation to the planet Jupiter be efficacious."
- 6. "The lord of creatures drank the invigorating sessence distilled from food; he drank milk and the juice of the moon plant. By means of scripture,
- \* According to one legend, a ray of the sun, called sushumna, became the moon; according to another, a flash of light from the eye of ATRI was received by space, a goddess; she conceived and bore Sóma, who is therefore called a son of ATRI. This legend may be found the Harivans'a. Ca'lida'sa alludes to it in the Raghuvans'a, (b. 2. v. 75) comparing Sudacshin'a', when she conceived Raghu, to the via lactea receiving the luminary which sprung from the eye of ATRI.

"ture, which is truth itself, this beverage thus quaf"fed became a prolific essence, the eternal organ of
"universal perception, INDRA's organs of sense, the
"milk of immortality, and honey to the manes of
"ancestors: May this oblation to the planet Venus
"be efficacious."

- 7. "May divine waters be auspicious to us for "accumulation, for gain, and for refreshing "draughts; may they listen to us, that we may be "associated with good auspices: May this oblation to the planet Saturn be efficacious."
- 8. "O Du'RVA'\*, which dost germinate at every "knot, at every joint, multiply us through a hun"dred, through a thousand descents: May this 
  "oblation to the planet of the ascending node be 
  "efficacious."
- 9. "BE thou produced by dwellers in this world to give knowledge to ignorant mortals, and "wealth to the indigent, or beauty to the ugly: "May this oblation to the planet of the descending "node be efficacious."

I now proceed to the promised description of funeral rites, abridging the detail of ceremonies as delivered in rituals, omitting local variations noticed by authors who have treated of this subject, and commonly neglecting the superstitious reasons given by them for the very numerous ceremonies which they direct to be performed in honour of persons recently deceased, or of ancestors long since defunct.

A DYING man, when no hopes of his surviving memain, should be laid upon a bed of cus'a grass, wither in the house or out of it, if he be a S'údra, lbut in the open air if he belong to another tribe.

When he is at the point of death, donations of cattle, land,

Agrostis linearis. Koenic.

land, gold, silver, or other things, according to his ability, should be made by him; or if he be too weak, by another person in his name. His head should be sprinkled with water drawn from the Ganges, and smeared with clay brought from the same river. A S'álagráma \* stone ought to be placed near the dying man, holy strains from the Véda or from sacred poems should be repeated aloud in his ears, and leaves of holy basil must be scattered over his head.

WHEN he expires, the corpse must be washed, perfumed, and decked with wreaths of flowers; a bit of tutanag, another of gold, a gem of any sort, and a piece of coral, should be put into the mouth of the corpse, and bits of gold in both nostrils, both eyes, and both ears. A cloth perfumed with fragrant oil must be thrown over the corpse, which the nearest relations of the deceased must then carry with modest deportment to some holy spot in the forest, or near The corpse must be preceded by fire, and by food carried in an unbaked earthen vessel; and rituals direct that it shall be accompanied by music of all sorts, drums, cymbals, and wind and stringed instruments. This practice seems to be now disused in most provinces of Hindustán; but the necessity of throwing a cloth over the corpse, however poor

The Sálagrámas are black stones, found in a part of the Gán'dací river, within the limits of Népál. They are mostly round, and
are commonly perforated in one or more places by worms, or, as the
Hindus believe, by Vishn/u in the shape of a reptile. According to
the number of perforations, and of spiral curves in each, the stone is
supposed to contain Vishn'u in various characters. For example,
such a stone perforated in one place only, with four spiral curves in the
perforation, and with marks refembling a cow's foot, and a long
wreath of flowers, contains Lacshmi' na'rayan'a. In like manner
stones are found in the Nermadá, near O'ncár mándáttá, which are
considered as types of Si'va, and are called Bán-ling. The Sálagráma is found, upon trial, not to be calcareous: it strikes are with
steel, and scarcely at all effervesces with acids.

the relations of the deceased may be, is enforced by the strictest injunctions: it is generally the perquisite of the priest who officiates at the funeral \*.

THE corpse is carried out by the southern gate of the town, if the deceased werea 'Súdra; by the western, if he were a Bráhmañ a; by the northern, if he belonged to the military class; and by the eastern portal, if he sprung from the mercantile tribe. Should the road pass through any inhabited place, a circuit must be made to avoid it; and when the procession has reached its destination, after once halting by the way, the corpse must be gently laid with the head towards the south on a bed of cus'a, the tips whereof are pointed southward. The sons or other relations of the deceased having bathed in their clothes, must next prepare the funeral pile with a sufficient quantity of fuel, on a clean spot of ground, after marking lines thereon to consecrate it in a mode similar to that which is practised in preparing a fire for sacrifices and oblations. They must afterwards wash the corpse, meditating on Gayá and other sacred places, holy mountains, the field of the Curus, the rivers Gangá, Yamuná, Cauficí, Chandrabhágá, Bhadrávacús á, Gan d'aci, Sárayú, and Nermadá; Vainava, Varáha, and Piń'dáraca, and all other holy places on the face of the earth, as well as the four oceans themselves.

Some of these ceremonies are only observed at the obsequies of a priest who maintained a consecrated fire; his funeral pile must be lighted from that fire: but at the obsequies of other persons, the carrying of food to be left by the way, and the consecration of the spot whereon the funeral pile is raised, must be omitted, and any unpolluted fire may be used:

\* In most parts of India the priests who officiate at funerals are held in disesteem; they are distinguished by various appellations, as Mahábráhmen, &c. See Digest of Hindu Law, vol. II. p. 175.

It is only necessary to avoid taking it from another funeral pile, or from the abode of an outcast, of a man belonging to the tribe of executioners, of a woman who has lately born a child, or of any person who is unclean.

AFTER washing the corpse, clothing it in clean apparel, and rubbing it with perfumes, such as sandal wood, saffron or alloe wood, the relations of the deceased place the corpse supine with its head towards the north, (or resupine, if it be the body of a woman,) on the funeral pile, which is previously decorated with strung and unstrung flowers. A cloth must be thrown overit, and a relation of the deceased taking up a lighted brand, must invoke the holy places above-mentioned, and say, "May the Gods with flaming mouths burn this corpse!" he then walks thrice round the pile with his right hand towards it, and shifts the sacrificial cord to his right shoulder. Then looking towards the south, and dropping his left knee to the ground, he applies the fire to the pile near the head of the corpse, saying, " Namó! namah!" while the attending priests recite the following prayer: "Fire! thou wert lighted by him-may he therefore be reproduced from thee that he may attain the region of celestial bliss. May this offering be auspicious." This, it may be remarked, supposes the funeral pile to be lighted from the sacrificial fire kept up by the deceased; the same prayer is however used at the funeral of a man who had no consecrated hearth.

The fire must be so managed that some bones may remain for the subsequent ceremony of gathering the ashes. While the pile is burning, the relations of the deceased take up seven pieces of wood a span long, and cut them severally with an axe over the firebrands (after walking each time round the funeral pile), and then throw the pieces over their shoulders upon the fire, saying, "Salutation to thee who dost consume flesh."

THE

THE body of a young child under two years old must not be burnt, but buried. It is decked with wreaths of fragrant flowers, and carried out by the relations, who bury it in a clean spot, saying, "Namó! namah!" while a priest chants the song of YAMA. "The offspring of the sun, day after day fetching cows, horses, human beings and cattle, is no more satiated therewith than a drunkard with wine."

When funeral rites are performed for a person who died in a foreign country, or whose bones cannot be found, a figure is made with three hundred and sixty leaves of the Butea, or as many woollen threads distributed so as to represent the several parts of the human body according to a fancied analogy of numbers; round the whole must be tied a thong of leather from the hide of a black antelope, and over that a woollen thread; it is then smeared with barley meal mixed with water, and must be burnt as an emblem

of the corpse.

AFTER the body of the deceased has been burnt in the mode above-mentioned, all who have touched or followed the corpse must walk round the pile, keeping their left hands towards it, and taking care not to look at the fire. They then walk in procession according to seniority, to a river or other running water, and after washing and again putting on their apparel, they advance into the stream. They then ask the deceased's brother in law, or some other person able to give the proper answer, "Shall we present water?" If the deceased were an hundred years old, the answer must be simply, "do so:" but if he were not so aged, the reply is, "do so, but do not repeat the oblation." Upon this they all shift the sacerdotal string to the right shoulder, and looking towards the south, and being clad in a single garment without a mantle, they stir the water with the ring finger of the left hand, saying, "waters, purify us." With the same finger of the right hand they throw up some water towards the south, and after plunging once under the surface of the river, they rub themselves with their hands. An oblation of water must be next presented from the joined palms of the hands, naming the deceased and the family from which he sprung, and saying, " may this oblation reach thee." If it be intended to show particular honour to the deceased, three offerings of water may be thus made.

AFTER finishing the usual libations of water to satisfy the manes of the deceased, they quit the river and shift their wet clothes for other apparel; they then sip water without swallowing it, and sitting down on the soft turf, alleviate their sorrow by the recital of the following or other suitable moral sentences, refraining at the same time from tears and

lamentation.

1. "FOOLISH is he who seeks permanence in the "human state, unsolid like the stem of the plantain "tree, transient like the foam of the sea."

2. "WHEN a body, formed of five elements to re-" ceive the reward of deeds done in its own former " person, reverts to its five original principles, what " room is there for regret?"

3. "The earth is perishable, the ocean, the Gods "themselves pass away: how should not that bubble,

" mortal man, meet destruction?"

4. "ALL that is low must finally perish; all that " is elevated must ultimately fall; all compound "bodies must end in dissolution, and life is con-

" cluded with death."

5. UNWILLINGLY do the manes of the deceased "taste the tears and rheum shed by their kinsmen; then do not wail, but diligently perform the obse-" quies of the dead \*."

AT

\* The recital of these verses is specially directed by YA'JNYA. WALCYA. b. 3. v. 7. &c.

AT night if the corpse were burnt by day, or in the day time if the ceremony were not completed until night; or in case of exigency, whenever the priest approves, the nearest relation of the deceased takes up water in a new earthen jar, and returns to the town preceded by a person bearing a staff\*, and attended by the rest walking in procession, and led by the youngest. Going to the door of his own house, or to a place of worship, or to some spot near water, he prepares the ground for the oblation of a funeral cake, by raising a small altar of earth, and marking lines on it as is practised for other oblations. Then taking a brush of cusá grass in his right hand, he washes therewith the ground, over which cush grass is spread, saying, "such a one (naming the deceased, and the family from which he sprung)! may this oblation be acceptable to thee." making a ball of three handfulls of boiled rice mixed with tila t, fruits of various sorts, honey, milk, butter, and similar things, such as sugar, roots, potherbs, &c. (or if that be impracticable with tila at least) he presents it on the spot he had purified, naming the deceased, and saying, "may this first funeral cake, which shall restore thy head, be acceptable to thee." Again purifying the spot in the same manner as before, and with the same words addressed to the deceased, he silently puts fragrant flowers, resin, a lighted lamp, betel leaves, and similar things, on the funeral cake, and then presents a woollen yarn, naming the deceased, and saying, "may this apparel, made of woollen yarn, be acceptable to thee." He next offers an earthen vessel full of tila and water near the funeral cake, and says, "may this vessel of tila and water be acceptable to thee."

It is customary to set apart, on a leaf, some food for the crows, after which the cake and other things

<sup>\*</sup> The purpose of his carrying a staff is to scare evil spirits and ghosts.

<sup>+</sup> Sesamum indicum LINN.

which have been offered must be thrown into the water. This part of the ceremony is then concluded by wiping the ground, and offering thereon a lamp, water, and wreaths of flowers, naming the deceased with each oblation, and saying, "may this be acceptable to thee."

In the evening of the same day, water and milk must be suspended in earthen vessels before the door in honour of the deceased, with this address to him, "Such a one deceased! bathe here—drink this:" and the same ceremony may be repeated every evening

until the period of mourning expire.

When the persons who attended the funeral return home and approach the house door, (before the ceremony of suspending water and milk, but after the other rites above-mentioned,) they each bite three leaves of Nimba \* between their teeth, sip water, and touch a branch of Samit with their right hands, while the priest says, "may the Sami tree atone for sins." Each mourner then touches fire, while the priest says, "may fire grant us happiness; and standing between a bull and a goat, touches both those animals while the priest recites an appropriate Then, after touching the tip of a blade of Durvá grass, a piece of coral, some clarified butter, water, cow dung, and white mustard seed, or rubbing his head and limbs with the butter and mustard seed, each man stands on a stone while the priest says for him, "may I be firm like this stone," and thus he enters his house.

During ten days, funeral cakes, together with libations of water and tila, must be offered as on the first day, augmenting, however, the number cach time, so that ten cakes, and as many libations of

water

+ Adenanthera aculeata, or Prosopis aculeata.

<sup>\*</sup> Melia Azadirachta LINN.

I must for the present omit it, because it is not exhibited at full length in any work. I have yet consulted.

water and tila be offered on the tenth day, and with this further difference, that the address varies each time. On the second day the prayer is, "may this second cake, which shall restore thy ears, eyes, and nose, be acceptable." On the third day, "this third cake, which shall restore thy throat, arms, and breast." On the fourth, "thy navel and organs of excretion;" on the fifth, "thy knees, legs, and feet;" on the sixth, "all thy witals;" on the seventh, "all thy veins;" on the eighth, "thy teeth, nails and hair;" on the ninth, "thy manly strength;" on the tenth, " may this tenth cake, which shall fully satisfy the hunger and thirst of thy renewed body, be acceptable to thee." During this period, a pebble wrapt up in a fragment of the deceased's shroud, is worn by the heir suspended on his neck. To that pebble as a type of the deceased, the funeral cakes are offered. The same vessel in which the first oblation was made must be used throughout the period of mourning; this vessel therefore is also carried by the heir in the fragment of the shroud. He uses that slip of cloth taken from the winding sheet, as a sacrificial cord, and makes the oblations every day on the same spot; should either the vessel or the pebble be lost by any accident, the offerings must be recommenced.

If the mourning last three days only, ten funeral cakes must be nevertheless offered, three on the first and third days, and four on the second; if it lasts no more than one day, the ten oblations must be made at once.

All the kinsmen of the deceased within the sixth degree of consanguinity, should fast for three days and nights, or one at the least; however, if that be impracticable, they may eat a single meal at night, purchasing the food ready prepared, but on no account preparing victuals at home. So long as the mourning lasts, the nearest relations of the deceased must not exceed one daily meal, nor eat flesh-

R 4 meat,

meat, nor any food seasoned with factitious salt; they must use a plate made of the leaves of any tree but the plantain, or else take their food from the hands of some other persons; they must not handle a knife, or any other implement made of iron, nor sleep upon a bed-stead, nor adorn their persons, but remain squalid, and refrain from perfumes and other gratifications; they must likewise omit the daily ceremonies of ablution and divine worship. On the third and fifth days, as also on the seventh and ninth, the kinsmen assemble, bathe in the open air, offer tila and water to the deceased, and take a repast together; they place lamps at cross roads, and in their own houses, and likewise on the way to the cemetery, and they observe vigils in honour of the deceased.

On the last day of mourning, or earlier in those countries where the obsequies are expedited on the second or third day, the nearest kinsman of the deceased gathers his ashes after offering a s'radd ha

singly for him.

In the first place the kinsman smears with cow dung the spot where the oblation is to be presented; and after washing his hands and feet, sipping water, and taking up cus'a grass in his hand, he sits down on a cushion pointed towards the south, and placed upon a blade of cus'a grass, the tip of which must also point towards the south. He then places near him a bundle of cus'a grass, consecrated by pronouncing the word namah! or else prepares a fire for oblations; then, lighting a lamp with clarified butter or with oil of sesamum, and arranging the food and other things intended to be offered, he must sprinkle himself with water, meditating on VISHNU surnamed the lotos-eyed, or revolving in his mind this verse, "Whether pure or defiled, or wherever he may have gone, he, who remembers the being, whose eyes are like the lotos, shall be pure externally and internally." Shifting the sacerdotal cord on his

his right shoulder, he takes up a brush of cus'a grass, and presents water together with tila and with blossoms, naming the deceased and the family from which he sprung, and saying, " may this water for ablutions be acceptable to thee." Then saying, "may this be right," he pronounces a vow or solemn declaration. "This day I will offer on a bundle of cus'a grass (or, if such be the custom, "on fire") a s'rádd'ha for a single person, with unboiled food, together with clarified butter and with water, preparatory to the gathering of the bones of such a one deceased." The priests answering "do so," he says "namó! namah!" while the priests meditate the gáyatri, and thrice repeat, "Salutation to the Gods, to the manes of ancestors, and to mighty saints; to Swáhá [goddess of fire]; to Swad'há [the food of the manes ]: salutation unto them for ever and ever."

He then presents a cushion made of cus'a grass, naming the deceased, and saying, "may this be acceptable unto thee;" and afterwards distributes meal of sesamum, while the priests recite, "May the demons and fierce giants that sit on this consecrated spot, be dispersed; and the blood-thirsty savages that inhabit the earth, may they go to any other place

to which their inclinations may lead them."

PLACING an oval vessel with its narrowest end towards the south, he takes up two blades of grass; and breaking off a span's length, throws them into the vessel; and, after sprinkling them with water, makes a libation, while the priests say, "May divine waters be auspicious to us for accumulation, for grain, and for refreshing draughts; may they listen to us, and grant that we may be associated with good auspices." He then throws in tila, while the priests say, "Thou art tila, sacred to Sóma; framed by the divinity, thou dost produce celestial bliss [for him that makes oblations]; mixed

with water may thou long satisfy our ancestors with the food of the manes; be this oblation efficacious." He afterwards silently casts into the vessel perfumes. flowers, and Durvá grass. Then taking up the vessel with his left hand, putting two blades of grass on the cushion, with their tips pointed to the north, he must pour the water from the argha thereon. The priests meantime recite, "The waters in heaven, in the atmosphere, and on earth, have been united [by their sweetness] with milk: may those silver waters, worthy of oblation, be auspicious, salutary, and exhilarating to us; and be happily offered: may this oblation be efficacious." He adds "namah," and pours out the water, naming the deceased, and saying, "may this argha be acceptable unto thee." Then oversetting the vessel, and arranging in due order the unboiled rice, condiments, clarified butter, and other requisites, he scatters tila, while the priests recite, "Thrice did VISHN'U step; &c." He next offers the rice, clarified butter, water, and condiments, while he touches the vessel with his left hand, and names the deceased, saying, "May this raw food, with clarified butter and condiments, together with water, be acceptable unto thee." After the priests have repeated the Gayatri, preceded by the names of the worlds, he pours honey or sugar upon the rice, while they recite this prayer, "May the winds blow sweet, the rivers flow sweet, and salutary herbs be sweet, unto us; may night be sweet, may the mornings pass sweetly; may the soil of the earth, and heaven parent [of all productions], be sweet unto us; may [Soma] king of herbs and trees be sweet; may the sun be sweet, may kine be sweet unto us." He then says, "Namo! namah!" while the priests recite, "whatever may be deficient in this food; whatever may be imperfect in this rite; whatever may be wanting in its form; may all that become faultless."

HE

He should then feed the Bráhman as, whom he has assembled, either silently distributing food among them, or adding a respectful invitation to them to eat. When he has given them water to rince their mouths, he may consider the deceased as fed through their intervention. The priests again recite the glyatri and the prayer, "may the winds blow sweet," &c. and add the subjoined prayers, which should be followed by the music of flagelets, lutes, drums, &c.

1. The embodied spirit, which hath a thousand heads, a thousand eyes, a thousand feet, stands in the human breast, while he totally pervades the earth. 2. That being is this universe, and all that has been or will be; he is that which grows by nourishment, and he is the distributor of immortality. 3. Such is his greatness; and therefore is he the most excellent embodied spirit: the elements of the universe are one portion of him; and three portions of him are immortality in heaven. 4. That three fold being rose above [this world]; and the single portion of him remained in this universe, which consists of what does, and what does not, taste [the reward of good and bad actions]: again he pervaded the universe. 5. From him sprung VIRAJ\*; from whom [the first] man was produced: and he, being successively reproduced, peopled the earth. 6. From that single portion, surnamed the universal sacrifice, was the holy oblation of butter and curds produced; and this did frame all cattle, wild or domestic, which are governed by instinct. 7. From that universal sacrifice, were produced the strains of the Rich and Saman; from him the sacred metres sprung; from him did the Yajush proceed. 8. From him were produced horses and all beasts that have two rows of teeth; from him sprung cows; from him proceeded goats and sheep. 9. Him the Gods, the demigods named Sád hya.

<sup>\*</sup> See translation of Menu. Ch. 1. v. 32.

and the holy sages, immolated as a victim on sacred grass; and thus performed a solemn act of religion. 10. Into how many portions did they divide this being, whom they immolated? what did his mouth become? what are his arms, his thighs, and his feet now called? 11. His mouth became a priest; his arm was made a soldier; his thigh was transformed into a husbandman; from his feet sprung the servile man. 12. The moon was produced from his mind; the sun sprung from his eye; air and breath proceeded from his ear; and fire rose from his mouth. 13. The subtile element was produced from his navel; the sky from his head; the earth from his feet; and space from his ear: thus did he frame worlds. 14. In that solemn sacrifice, which the Gods performed with him as a victim, spring was the butter, summer the fuel, and sultry weather the oblation. 15. Seven were the moats [surrounding the altar]; thrice seven were the logs of holy fuel; at that sacrifice, which the Gods performed, immolating this being as the victim. 16. By that sacrifice the Gods worshipped this victim: such were primeval duties; and thus did they attain heaven, where former Gods and mighty demigods abide \*.

NEXT spreading cus a grass near the fragments of the repast, and taking some unboiled rice with tila and clarified butter, he must distribute it on the grass, while the priests recite for him these prayers: "May those in my family, who have been burnt by fire, or who are alive and yet unburnt, be satisfied with this food presented on the ground; and proceed contented towards the supreme path [of eternal bliss]. May those, who have no father nor mother, nor kinsman, nor food, nor supply of nourishment.

<sup>\*</sup> I think it unnecessary to quote from the commentary the explanation of this curious passage of the Véda as it is there given, because it does not really elucidate the sense; the allegory is, for the most part, sufficiently obvious. Other prayers may be also recited on the same occasion: it would be tedious to insert them all in this place.

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be contented with this food offered on the ground, and attain, like it, a happy abode." He then gives the Bráman as water to rince their mouths; and the priests once more recite the Gáyatrí and the prayer,

"may the winds blow sweet," &c.

THEN taking in his left hand another vessel containing tila, blossoms and water, and in his right ...a brush made of cus'a grass, he sprinkes water over the grass spread on the consecrated spot, naming the deceased, and saying, " may this ablution be acceptable to thee: he afterwards takes a cake or ball of food mixed with clarified butter, and presents it, saying, "may this cake be acceptable to thee;" and deals out the food with this prayer, " Ancestors, rejoice; take your respective shares, and be strong as bulls." Then walking round by the left, to the northern side of the consecrated spot, and meditating, " Ancestors be glad; take your respective shares, and be strong as bulls:" he returns by the same road, and again sprinkles water on the ground to wash the oblation, saying, "may this ablution be acceptable to thee."

NEXT, touching his hip with his elbow, or else his right side, and having sipped water, he must make six libations of water with the hollow palms of his hand, saying, "Salutation unto thee, O deceased, and unto the saddening [hot] season; salutation unto thee, O deceased, and unto the month of tapas [or dewy season]; salutation unto thee, O deceased, and unto that [season] which abounds with water; salutation unto thee, O deceased, and to the nectar [of blossoms]; salutation unto thee, O deceased, and to the terrible and angry [season]; salutation unto thee, O deceased, and to the terrible and angry [season]; salutation unto thee, O deceased, and to female fire [or the

sultry season] \*."

HE next offers a thread on the funeral cake, holding the wet brush in his hand, naming the deceased.

and saying, " may this raiment be acceptable to thee;" the priests add, " fathers, this apparel is offered unto you." He then silently strews perfumes, blossoms, resin and betel leaves on the funeral cake, and places a lighted lamp on it. He sprinkles water on the bundle of grass, saying, "may the waters be auspicious," and offers rice, adding, "may the blossoms be sweet; may the rice be harmless;" and then pours water on it, naming the deceased, and saying, "may this food and drink be acceptable unto thee." In the next place he strews grass over the funeral cake, and sprinkles water on it, reciting this prayer, "waters! ye are the food of our progenitors; satisfy my parents, ye who convey nourishment, which is ambrosia, butter, milk, cattle and distilled liquor \*." Lastly, he smells some of the food, and poises in his hand the funeral cakes, saying, "may this ball be wholesome food;" and concludes by paying the officiating priest his fee, with a formal declaration, "I do give this fee (consisting of so much money) to such a one (a priest sprung from such a family, and who uses such a Véda and such a s'ác há of it,) for the purpose of fully completing the obsequies this day performed by me in honour of one person singly, preparatory to the gathering of the bones of such a one de-

AFTER the priest has thrice said, "salutation to the Gods, to progenitors, to mighty saints, &c." he dismisses him; lights a lamp in honour of the deceased; meditates on HERI with undiverted attention; casts the food, and other things used at the obsequies,

<sup>\*</sup> The former translation of this text (As. Res. vol. V. page 867) was erroneous in several places; and I still am not perfectly confident that I rightly understand it. The term (cilcia) which the commentator explains as signifying cattle, literally means fit to be tied to a pole or stake. The reading of the next term was erroneous. I read at translated paris ruta for parisruta; promised instead of distilled. The commentator explains it as signifying the nourishment of progenitors.

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obsequies, into the fire; and then proceeds to the cemetery for the purpose of gathering the ashes of the deceased.

The son or nearest relation of the defunct, accompanied by his kinsmen, and clothed in clean apparel, repairs to the cemetery, carrying eight vessels filled with various flowers, roots and similar things. When arrived there, he does honour to the place by presenting an argha with perfumes, blossoms, fragrant resins, a lamp, &c. Some of his kinsmen invoke the deities of the cemetery when the argha is presented; others, when flowers are offered; others again, when food, fragrant resins, a lighted lamp, water, wreathes of flowers, and rice are offered, saying, " salutation to the deities, whose mouths are devouring fire." He advances to the northern gate\*, or extremity of the funeral pile; sits down there; and presents two vessels as an oblation to spirits, with this prayer, " May the adorable and eternal Gods, who are present in this cemetery, accept from us this eightfold unperishable oblation: may they convey the deceased to pleasing and eternal abodes, and grant to us life, health, and perfect ease. This eightfold oblation is offered to SIVA and other deities, salutation unto them." Then walking round the spot with his right side towards it, he successively places two other vessels, containing eight different things, at each of the three other gates or sides of the enclosure which surrounds the funeral pile; and he presents these oblations with the same formality as before, sprinkles them with milk, and adds, "may SIVA and the other deities depart to their respective abodes." He then shifts the sacerdotal string to his right shoulder, turns his face towards the south; silently sprinkles the bones and ashes with cow's milk, and, using a branch of Sami, and ano-

<sup>\*</sup> The practice of enclosing the funeral pile with temporary walls is almost universally disused.

ther of Palas'a \* instead of tongs, first draws out from the ashes the bones of the head, and afterwards the other bones, successively; sprinkles them with perfumed liquids and with clarified butter made of cow's milk; and puts them into a casket made of the leaves of the Palása: this he places in a new earthen vessel, covers it with a lid, and ties it up with thread. Choosing some clean spot where encroachments of the river are not to be apprehended, he digs a very deep hole, and spreads cus'a grass at the bottom of it, and over the grass a piece of yellow cloth; he places thereon the earthen vessel containing the bones of the deceased, covers it with a lump of mud, together with thorns, moss and mud: and plants a tree in the excavation, or raises a mound of masonry, or makes a pond, or erects a standard. He, and the rest of the kinsmen, then bathe in their clothes. At a subsequent time, the son or other near relation fills up the excavation, and levels the ground; he throws the ashes of the funeral pile into the water; cleans the spot with cow-dung and water; presents oblation to S'IVA and other deities in the manner before mentioned, dismisses those deities, and casts the oblation into water. To cover the spot where the funeral pile stood, a tree should be planted, or a mound of masonry be raised, or a pond dug, or a standard be erected †. Again at a

\* Butea frondosa LINN. and superba ROXB.

<sup>†</sup> This does not appear to be very universally practised; but a monument is always erected on the spot where a woman has burnt herselwith her husband's corpse, or where any person has died a legal voluntary death. A mausoleum is however often built in honour of HINDU prince or noble; it is called in the Hindustáni language, Ch'betri; and the practice of consecrating a temple in honour of the deceased is still more common, especially in the centrical parts of India I shall take some future occasion to resume a subject alluded to in the note; but in the mean time it may be fit to remark, that legal suici was formerly common among the Hindus, and is not now very fare although instances of men's burning themselves have not perhaps lated occurred so often as their drowning themselves in holy rivers. To blind father and mother of the young anchorite, whom Das'ARAT'H.

subsequent time, the son, or other near relation, carries the bones which were so buried to the river Ganges: he bathes there, rubs the vessel with the five productions of kine, puts gold, honey, clarified butter and tila on the vessel, and looking towards the south, and advancing into the river, with these words, "be there salutation unto justice," throws the vessel into the waters of the Ganges, saying, "may he (the deceased) be pleased with me."—Again bathing, he stands upright, and contemplates the sun; then sipping water, and taking up cus'a grass, tila and water, pays the priests their fees.

So long as mourning lasts after gathering the ashes, the near relations of the deceased continue to offer water with the same formalities and prayers as above-mentioned, and to refrain from factitious salt, ibutter, &c. On the last day of mourning, the nearest relation puts on neat apparel, and causes his house and furniture to be cleaned; he then goes out of the town, and after offering the tenth funeral cake in the manner before described, he makes ten libations of water from the palms of his hands; causes the lhair of his head and body to be shaved, and his nails to be cut, and gives the barbers the clothes which

islew by mistake, burnt themselves with the corpse of their son. The escholiast of the Raghuvans'a, in which poem, as well as in the RAMA-YAN'A, this story is beautifully told, quotes a text of law to prove that suicide is in such instances legal. I cannot refrain from also menttioning, that instances are not unfrequent where persons afflicted with loathsome and incurable diseases, have caused themselves to be buried calive. I hope soon to be the channel of communicating to the Asiatic Society a very remarkable case of a leper rescued from a premature grave, and radically cured of his distemper. I must also take this occasion of announcing a very singular practice which prevails among othe lowest tribes of the inhabitants of Berar and Gondwana. Suicide is not unfrequently vowed by such persons in return for boons soliocited from idols, and to fulfil his vow, the successful votary throws Thimself from a precipice named Calabhairava, situated in the mountains between the Tapti and Nermada rivers. The annual fair held plear that spot at the beginning of spring, usually witnesses eight or ten victims of chi வெயலா Manager Wantersity Haridwar Collection. Digitized by S3 Foundation USA were worn at the funeral of the deceased, and adds some other remuneration. He then anoints his head and limbs down to his feet, with oil of sesamum, rubs all his limbs with meal of sesamum, and his head with the ground pods of white mustard; he bathes, sips water, touches and blesses various auspicious things, such as stones, clarified butter, leaves of Nimba, white mustard, Durvá grass, coral, a cow, gold, curds, honey, a mirror, and a conch; and also touches a bambu staff. He now returns purified to his home, and thus completes the first obsequies of the deceased.

THE second series of obsequies, commencing on the day after the period of mourning has elapsed, is opened by a lustration termed the consolatory ceremony, the description of which must be here abridged for want of a commentary to explain all the prayers that are recited at this religious rite; for the same reason an account of the ceremonies attending the consecration and dismissal of a bull in honour of the

deceased, must for the present be postponed.

THE lustration consists in the consecration of four vessels of water, and sprinkling therewith the house, the furniture, and the persons belonging to the family. After lighting a fire, and blessing the attendant Bráhman'as, the priest fills four vessels with water, and putting his hand into the first, meditate the gayatri before and after reciting the following

prayers:

1. "May generous waters be auspicious to us, for grain and for refreshing draughts; may they approach towards us, that we may be associated with good auspices." 2. "Earth, aiford us ease, be freshing thorns, be habitable; widely extended as the art, procure us happiness." 3. "O waters! sine ye afford delight, grant us food, and the rapture sight [of the Supreme Being]." 4, "Like tends mothers."

mothers, make us here partakers of your most au-

PUTTING his hand into the second vessel, the priest meditates the gayatri, and the four prayers above quoted, adding some others, and concluding this second consecration of water by once more

meditating the gayatri.

THEN taking a lump of sugar and a copper vessel in his left hand, biting the sugar and spitting it put again, the priest sips water; afterwards putting aiis hand into the third vessel, he meditates the gayutri and the four prayers above cited, interposing this, "May INDRA and VARUN'A [the regents of he sky and of the ocean accept our oblations, and grant us happiness; may INDRA and the cherishing oun grant us happiness in the distribution of food; may INDRA and the moon grant us the happiness of tttaining the road to celestial bliss, and the associaion of good auspices." The priest adds, 1. "May we sufficiently attain your essence with which you atisfy the universe - Waters! grant it to us." ... "May heaven be our comfort; may the sky, arth, water, salutary herbs, trees, the assembled gods, the creator, and the universe, be our comfort; may that comfort obviate difficulties, and become to is the means of attaining our wishes." 3. "Make me perfect in [my own person, and in the persons of Ill who are] connected with me; may all beings view ne with the [benevolent] eye of the sun: I new all beings with the solar eye; let us view each tther with the [benevolent] solar eye." 4. "Make

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The translation of several among these prayers is a little varied com a former version of them, to conform with the different exposicons given in different places by the commentators I have consulted.
cor the same purpose I shall here subjoin another version of the gáy'ri. "Earth! Sky! Heaven! Let us meditate on [these and on]
the most excellent light and power of that generous, sportive, and reblendent Sun: [praying that] it may guide our intellects." A parabrafe of this very important text may be found in the preface to the

me perfect in my own person, and in the persons of all who are allied to me; may I live long in thy sight; long may I live in thy sight." 5. "Saluta-. tion to thee [O fire!] who dost seize oblations, to thee who dost shine, to thee who dost scintillate; may thy flames burn our foes; mayst thou the purifier be auspicious unto us." 6. "Salutation to thee, manifested in lightning; salutation to thee, manifested in thunder; salutation to thee, O Gop! for thou dost endeavour to bestow celestial bliss." 7: "Since thou dost seek to awe the wicked [only], make us fearless; grant happiness to our progeny, and courage to our cattle." 8. " May water and herbs be friendly to us; may they be inimical to him who hates us, and whom we hate." 9. "May we see an hundred years that pure eye which rises from the east, and benefits the Gods; may we live a hundred years; may we speak a hundred years; may we be free from distress a hundred years, and again a hundred years." After another prayer, the priest again meditates the gayatri, and thus concludes the third consecration. He then hallows the fourth vessel of water in a similar manner, with a repetition of the prayer "May the earth be our comfort, &c." and with some others, which must be here omitted for the reason before-mentioned \*.

Though it be not positively enjoined, it is customary, immediately after this lustration, to give away a vessel of tila, and also a cow, for the sake of securing the passage of the deceased over the Vaitaran'i, or river of hell; whence the cow so given is ealled Vaitaran'i-d'hénu. Afterwards a bed with its furniture

<sup>\*</sup> At most religious ceremonies, and especially at the deprecatory rites, the prayers directed in the several Védas, and in the various Sác'hás of them, differ much. Those which are translated in the present and former essays, are mostly taken from the Yajurvéda, and may be used by any Bráhmen, instead of the prayers directed in the particular Veda, by which he should regularly be guided. The subject of lustrations is curious; they are performed with various ce of constant and university and was constant to the constant and the particular veda, by which he should regularly be guided. The subject of lustrations is curious; they are performed with various ce other engagements permit it, this topic will be treated in a future essay.

furniture is brought, and the giver sits down near the Bráhman'a, who has been invited to receive the present; after saying, "salutation to this bed with its furniture, salutation to this priest to whom it is given," he pays due honour to the Bráhman'a in the usual form of hospitality. He then pours water into his hand, saying, "I give thee this bed with its furniture;" the priest replies, "give it." Upon this he sprinkles it with water, and taking up cus'a grass, tila and water, delivers them to the priest, pouring the water into his hand with a formal declaration of the gift and its purpose, and again delivers a bit of gold with cus'a grass, &c. making a similar formal declaration. 1. "This day, I, being desirous of obtaining celestial bliss for such a one defunct, do give unto thee, such a one, a Brahman'a, descended from such a family, to whom due honour has been shown, this bed and furniture, which has been duly honoured, and which is sacred to VISHN'U." 2. "This day I give unto thee (so and so) this gold, sacred to fire, as a sacerdotal fee, for the sake of confirming the donation I have made of this bed and furniture." The Bráhman'a both times replies, "be it well." lying upon the bed, and touching it with the upper part of his middle finger, he meditates the gayatri with suitable prayers, adding, "This bed is sacred to VISHN'U."

With the same ceremonies, and with similar formal declarations, he next gives away to a Bráhman'a. (or more commonly, in both instances, to a married couple,) a golden image of the deceased, or else a golden idol, or both, with clothes and various sorts of fruit. 'Afterwards he distributes other presents 'among Bráhman'as, for the greater honour of the 'deceased; making donations of land, and giving a 'chair or stool, clothes, water, food, betel leaf, a 'lamp, gold, silver, a parasol, an orchard of fruit trees, wreathes of flowers, a pair of shoes, another bed, another milch cow, and any other presents he

' may choose to give, such as an elephant, a horse,

' a carriage, a slave, a house, and so forth.'

It is hardly necessary to remark on this quotation, that none but very rich or superstitious persons make these ample donations, which are not positively

enjoined, though strenuously recommended.

THERE is some difference in the religious formalities, with which various things are given, or accepted, on this, or on any other occasion. In the formal declaration too, a different tutelary Deity is named, and a different object is specified; but, in other respects, the form of the declaration is similar, whatever be the occasion on which the gift is made.

In making a donation of land, the donor sits down with his face to the east, opposite to the person to whom he gives it. The donor says, "salu. tation to this land with its produce: salutation to this priest, to whom I give it." Then, after showing him honour in the usual form, he pours water into his hand, saying, "I give thee this land with its produce." The other replies, "give it." Upon which he sprinkles the place with water; and taking up water, with holy basil, and cus'a grass, he pours the water into the other's hand, making a formal declaration of the donation and the motive of it. He then delivers a bit of gold, with cus'a grass, &c. declaring his purpose in giving it, as a sacerdotal fee, to consolidate the donation of land. The other ac-· cepts the gift by a verbal acknowledgment, and meditates the gayatri with some other prayers.

A CHAIR or stool is accepted by sitting down on it; clothes, by putting them on; a parasol, by holding the handle of it; shoes, or sandals, by standing on them; and a couch, by lying on it. In these and other donations, there is no variation in the prayers; but the gift of a milch cow is made with other texts, which the donor recites standing near the cow, and making a libation of water from the palms of his hands

hands after the recital of each prayer. The gift is

accepted by holding the animal's tail.

1. " May the Goddess, who is the LACHSMI of of all beings, and resides among the Gods, assume the shape of a milch cow, and procure me comfort." 2. "May the Goddess who is Rudraní in a corporeal form, and who is the beloved of SIVA, assume the shape of a milch cow, and procure me comfort." 3. "May she, who is LACHSMI reposing on the bosom of VISHN'U; she, who is the LACHSMi of the regent of riches; she, who is the LACHSMI of kings, be a boon-granting cow to me." 4. " May she, who is the Lachsmi of Brahma'; she, who is Swaha, the wife of fire; she, who is the exerted power of the sun, moon, and stars, assume the shape of a milch cow for [my] prosperity." 5. "Since thou art Swad há [the food] of them, who are chief among the manes of ancestors, and Swaha [the consuming power] of them who eat solemn sacrifices: therefore, being the cow that expiates every sin, procure me comfort." 6. "I invoke the Goddess, who is endowed with the attributes of all the Gods; who confers all happiness; who bestows [abodes in] all the worlds for the sake of all people." 7. "I pray to that auspicious Goddess for immortality and happiness."

The remaining ceremonies, omitting for the present the consecration of a bull, consist chiefly in the obsequies called s'rádd'has. The first set of funeral ceremonies is adapted to effect, by means of oblations, the reimbodying of the soul of the deceased, after burning his corpse. The apparent scope of the second set is to raise his shade, from this world, (where it would else, according to the notions of the Hindus, continue to roam among demons and evil spirits,) up to heaven, and there deify him, as it were, among the manes of departed ancestors. For this end, a s'rádd'ha should regularly be offered to the deceased on the day after mourning expires;

twelve

twelve other s'rádd'has singly to the deceased in twelve successive months: similar obsequies at the end of the third fortnight, and also in the sixth month, and in the twelfth; and the oblation called Sapin'dana, on the first anniversary of his decease. In most provinces the periods for these sixteen ceremonies, and for the concluding obsequies entitled Sapin'dana, are anticipated, and the whole is completed on the second or third day. After which they are again performed at the proper times, but in honour of the whole set of progenitors instead of the deceased singly. The obsequies intended to raise the shade of the deceased to heaven are thus completed. Afterwards a s'rádd'ha is annually offered to him on the anniversary of his decease.

The form of the various s'rádd'has (for they are numerous\*) is so nearly the same, that it will be only necessary to describe that which is performed in honour of progenitors in general; and at which three funeral cakes are offered to three paternal ancestors; as many to three maternal fore-fathers, and two to the Vis'wédévas or assembled Gods. A s'rádd'ha in honour of one person singly has been already noticed.

After

<sup>&</sup>quot; In a work entitled Nirneya Sind'ha, I find authority for classing obsequies under twelve heads. 1. Daily obsequies, either with food, or with water only, in honour of ancestors in general, but excluding the Vis'wédéva. 2. Obsequies for a special cause; that is, in honour of a kinsman recently defunct. 3. Voluntary obsequies, performed by way of supererogation, for the greater benefit of the deceased. 4. Obsequies for increase of prosperity, performed upon any accession of wealth or prosperity, and upon other joyful occasions. 5. A s'radd'ha intended to introduce the shade of a deceased kinsman to the rest of the manes. 6. Obsequies performed on appointed days, fuch as that of new moon, full moon, sun's passage into a new sign, &c. 7. A s'rádd'ha, to sanctify the food at an entertainment given to a company of reverend persons. 8. One performed when stated numbers of priests are fed at the cost of a person who needs purification from some defilement. 9. A s'rádd' ha preparatory to the celebration of any folema rite, and considered as a part of such rite. 10. S'rádd' bas in honour of deities. 11. Oblations of clarified butter, previous to the undertaking of a distant journey. 12. A s'rádd'ha to sanctify a meal of CC-6 Gurunut Kangri University Haridwap Collection: Biglized by 3176 Undation USA

After smearing the place with cow-dung, a square altar of sand is raised on it, one or two fingers high, and a span nearly in each direction. (It must be triangular at the obsequies of one recently defunct.) The person who performs the ceremony, first washes his hands and feet, sips water, and puts a ring of cus'a grass on the ring finger of each hand. He sits down on a cushion of cus'a grass, or of other materials, placed upon a blade of such grass. He lights a lamp, reciting a prayer, which will be cited on another occasion. He places the implements and materials in regular order, and sprinkles water on himself and all around, meditating on VISHN'U surnamed the lotos-eyed, and revolving in his mind the couplet "whether pure or defiled, &c." He now shifts the sacerdotal thread to his right shoulder, and solemnly declares his intention of performing a s'radd'ha, and the motive of it. He thrice meditates the gayatri, and pronounces the salutation to superior beings, "salutation to the Gods, to the manes of ancestors, &c."

AFTER this preparation, he proceeds to invite and to welcome the assembled Gods and the manes. First he places two little cushions of cus'a grass on one side of the altar for the Viśwedevas, and six in front of it for the Pitris. Each cushion should consist of three blades of grass folded up. After strewing cus'a grass on those cushions, he asks, "shall I invoke the assembled Gods?" being told "do so," he thus invokes them: "assembled Gods! hear my invocation; come and sit down on this holy grass." After scattering barley on the same spot, he meditates this prayer, "assembled Gods! listen to my invocation, ye, who reside in the sky; and ye who abide near us, [on earth,] or [far off] in heaven: ye, whose tongues are fire; and ye, who defend the funeral sacrifice, sit on this grass, and be cheerful." He then invites the manes of ancestors with similar invocations; "O fire! zealously

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we support thee, zealously we feed thee with fuel; eagerly do thou call our willing ancestors to taste our oblation." "May our progenitors, who eat the moon plant, who are sanctified by holy fires, come by paths which Gods travel\*. Satisfied with ancestral food at this solemn sacrifice, may they applaud and guard us." He next welcomes the Gods and manes with oblations of water, &c. in vessels made of leaves †. Two are presented to the Vis'wedevas, and three to paternal ancestors, and as many to maternal fore-fathers. Cus'a grass is put into each vessel, and water sprinkled on it, while the prayer, "May divine waters be auspicious to us, &c." is recited. Barley is thrown into the vessels intended for the Gods, and tila into those intended for the manes of ancestors, with these prayers, 1. "Barley! thou art the separator t, separate [us from] our natural enemies; and from our malicious foes." 2. "Thou art tila, sacred to So'MA, &c." At a s'rádd'ha for increase of prosperity, which is performed on many occasions as a preparative for a solemn act of religion, barley is thrown into the vessels instead of tila, and the last prayer is thus varied: "Thou art barley, sacred to So'MA: framed by the divinity, thou dost produce celestial bliss; mixt with water, may thou long satisfy with nourishment my several progenitors, whose mouths are full of blessings." The vessels are successively taken up, re-peating each time a prayer before cited: "The waters in heaven, in the atmosphere, and on the earth, have been united with milk, &c." The cus'a grass, that lay on the vessels, is put into a Bráhman'a's hand; and that which was under it, is held by the

<sup>\*</sup> The Via Lactea seems to be meant by the path of the Gods.

<sup>+</sup> Plantain leaves; or else leaves of the Butea frondosa, or of the Bassia lati-folia.

<sup>†</sup> Yava signifies barley; in this text it also signifies separator, being derived from yu, to unmix. Many of the prayers contain similar CC-0. Curukul Kangri University Haridwar Collection. Digitized by S3 Foundation USA

person who performs the s'radd'ha, in his own hand; and through it he successively pours the water out of each vessel on the Brahman'a's hand. He then piles up the empty vessels in three sets, and reverses them, saying, while he oversets the first, "Thou art a mansion for ancestors."

At the last obsequies for one recently deceased, and which are named the Sapin'd'ana, the following prayer is recited when the vessel, which has been offered to him, is piled up with the rest: "May the mansion of those progenitors, who have reached a common abode, and who have accordant minds, foster him: may the blessed sacrifice, sacred to the Gods, be his." The subjoined prayer likewise is peculiar to the Sapin'd ana. "By [the intercession of] those souls, who are mine by affinity, who are animated [shades], who have reached a common abode, who have accordant minds, may prosperity be mine in this world for a hundred years."

The person who performs the s'rádd'ha, next takes up food smeared with clarified butter, and makes two oblations to fire, reciting these prayers:

1. "May this oblation to fire, which conveys offerings to the manes, be efficacious. 2." May this oblation to the moon, wherein the progenitors of

mankind abide, be efficacious."

BRA'HMAN'AS should be fed with the residue of the oblation; it is accordingly consecrated for that purpose by the following prayer: "The vessel that holds thee is the earth; its lid is the sky; I offer this residue of an oblation, similar to ambrosia, in the undefiled mouth of a priest; may this oblation be efficacious." The performer of the s'radd'ha then points with his thumb towards the food, saying, "Thrice did VISHN'U step, &c." He adds, "May the demons and giants, that sit on this consecrated spot, be dispersed." He meditates the gayatri with the names of worlds; and sweetens the food with honey or sugar, saying, "May winds blow sweet,

&c." He then distributes the food among Bráhmánas, and when they have eaten and have acknowledged that they are satisfied, he gives them water to rince their mouths.

HE now proceeds to offer the funeral cakes, consisting of balls or lumps of food mixed with clarified butter. He offers three to the paternal fore-fathers, as many to the maternal ancestors, and two to the Vis'wédévas. The prayers ("Ancestors! rejoice, take your respective shares, &c.") and the form of the oblation have been already mentioned. It is only necessary to add in this place, that he wipes his hand with cus'a grass in honour of remoter ancestors, who thus become partakers of the oblations.

In the next place, he makes six libations of water from the palms of his hands, with the salutation to the seasons: "Salutation, unto you, O fathers, and unto the saddening season, &c." by this prayer the manes of ancestors are doubly saluted; for the Véda declares, "the six seasons are the progenitors of

mankind."

A THREAD is placed on each funeral cake, to serve as apparel for the manes; and each time the same words are repeated, "Fathers! this apparel is offered unto you." Flowers, perfumes, and similar things are added at pleasure; but water must be sprinkled on each cake, with the prayer, "Waters,

ye are the food of our progenitors, &c."

The performer of the s'radd'ha then takes up the middle cake and smells to it; or his wife eats it, if they be solicitous for male offspring; in this case the following prayer must be recited: "Grant, O progenitors, the conception of a male child, [long lived and healthy, like] the lotos and garland [or twins, that sprung from A'swini']; so that, at this season, there may be a person [to fulfill the wishes of the Gods, of the manes, and of human beings."] He then takes up the cakes successively, smells to them, throws them into a vessel, and gives away the CC-0 Gurukul Kangri University Haridwar Collection. Digitized by S3 Foundation USA food

food to a mendicant priest, or to a cow; or else casts it into the waters.

He then dismisses the manes, saying, "Fathers, to whom food belongs, guard our food, and the other things offered by us; venerable and immortal as ye are, and conversant with holy truths; quaff the sweet essence of it, be cheerful and depart contented, by the paths which Gods travel." Lastly, he walks round the spot and leaves it, saying, "May the benefit of this oblation accrue to me repeatedly; may the Goddess of the earth, and the Goddess of the sky, whose form is the universe, visit me [with present and future happiness]. Father and mother! revisit me, [when I again celebrate obsequies]. Soma, king of the manes! visit me for the

sake of [conferring] immortality."

A S'RA'DD'HA is thus performed, with an oblation of three funeral cakes only, to three male paternal ancestors, on some occasions; or with as many funeral oblations to three maternal ancestors, on others. Sometimes separate oblations are also presented to the wives of the paternal ancestors; at other times, similar offerings are likewise made to the wives of three maternal ancestors. Thus, at the monthly s'radd has celebrated on the day of new moon, six funeral cakes are offered to three paternal and as many maternal male ancestors with their wives: on most other occasions separate oblations are presented to the female ancestors. At the obsequies celebrated in the first half of 'As'wina, on the day entitled Mahálayá, funeral cakes are separately offered to every deceased friend and near relation: thus, immediately after the oblations to ancestors, a cake is presented to a deceased wife, then to a son or daughter, to a brother or sister, to an uncle or aunt, to a father-inlaw, to a preceptor, and lastly to a friend. The same is observed at the obsequies performed on the day of an eclipse, or upon a pilgrimage to any holy spot, and especially to Gayá.

FORMAL obsequies are performed no less than ninety-six times in every year; namely, on the day of new moon, and on the dates of the fourteen Menwantaras, and of four Yugadyas; that is, on the anniversaries of the accession of fourteen MENUS. and of the commencement of four ages: also throughout the whole first fortnight of A's'wina. thence called pitripacsha, and whenever the sun enters a new sign, and especially when he reaches the equinox, or either solstice; and, in certain circumstances, when the moon arrives at Vyatipata, one of the twenty-seven yógas, or astrological divisions of the zodiack. The eighth of Pausha, called Aindrí, the eighth of Maghá, (when flesh-meat should be offered,) and the ninth of the same month, together with additional obsequies on some of these dates and on a few others, complete the number above mentioned: different authorities do not, however, concur exactly in the number or in the particular days when the s'radd'has should be solemnized.

Besides these formal obsequies, a daily s'rádd'ha is likewise performed. It consists in dropping food into the hands of a Brahmán'a after offering it to six ancestors by name, with the usual preparatory vow and prayers, and with the formality of placing three blades of grass as a seat for each ancestor; but using a single prayer only for the invocation of the manes, and omitting the ceremony of welcoming them with an argha. Libations of water are also made in honour of progenitors, as noticed in the former essay on daily ablutions.

The obsequies for increase of prosperity, or as the same term (Vriddhi śrádd'ha) may signify, the obsequies performed on an accession of prosperity\*, are celebrated previously to the sacrifice of a victim, and to the solemnization of a marriage, or of any of

<sup>\*</sup> Sometimes named Nándi muc'ha, from a word which occurs in cche prayer peculiar to this śrádd'ha.

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the ceremonies which, according to the notions of the Hindus, contribute to the regeneration of a twiceborn man, that is, of a Bráhman'a, Cshatriya, or Vais'ya. This s'rádd'ha is likewise performed at the commencement and close of a solemn

It should be observed respecting the practice of giving food to priests at all these obsequies, that Bráhman'as generally give it to one or more of their own relations. A stranger, unless indigent, would be very unwilling to accept the food, or to attend at a s'radd'ha for the purpose of eating it. The use of flesh-meat is positively enjoined to Hindus at certain obsequies, (see MENU c. 3. v. 124,) and recommended at all (MENU c. 3. v. 268, &c.): but the precepts of their law-givers on the subject are by some deemed obsolete in the present age; and are evaded by others, who acknowledge the cogency of these laws: these commonly make a vow to abstain from flesh-meat, and consider that vow as more binding than the precepts here alluded to. Others again not only eat meat at obsequies and solemn sacrifices, but make it their common diet, in direct breach of the institutes of their religion. (See MENU c. 5. v. 31, &c.)

BRÁHMAN'AS, who maintain a perpetual fire, which all who devote themselves to the priesthood ought to do, perform the daily ceremonies of religion in their full detail. Others, who are engaged in worldly pursuits, and even some who follow the regular profession of the sacerdotal tribe, abridge these rites: they comprise all the daily sacraments in one ceremony, called Vais'wadeva, which is celebrated in the forenoon, and by some in the evening likewise. It consists in oblations to the Gods, to the manes, and to the spirits, out of the food prepared for the daily meal; and in a gift of a part of it to

guests.

SITTING down on a clean spot of ground, the Bráhmana Bráhman'a places a vessel containing fire on his right hand, and hallows it by throwing away a lighted piece of cusá grass, saying, "I dismiss far away carnivorous fire," &c. He then places it on the consecrated spot, reciting the prayer, with which the household and sacrificial fires should be lighted by the attrition of wood; "Fires! [this wood] is thy origin, which is attainable in all seasons; whence being produced, thou dost shine. Knowing this, seize on it, and afterwards augment our wealth."

He then lays cusá grass on the eastern side of the fire, with its tips pointed towards the north, reciting the first verse of the Rigvéda, with which also it is usual to commence the daily lecture of that Véda, "I praise divine fire, primevally consecrated, the efficient performer of a solemn ceremony, the chief agent of a sacrifice, the most liberal giver of gems."

He next spreads cusá grass on the southern side of the fire, with its tips pointed towards the east, reciting the introduction of the Yajurvéda, with which also a daily lecture of the Yajush is always begun. "1. I gather thee for the sake of rain." [He breaks off a branch of a tree, or is supposed to do so, with these words.] 2. "I pluck thee for the sake of strength." [He pulls down the branch he had broken.] 3. "Ye are like unto air." [He touches young calves with the branch he had plucked.] 4. "May the liberal generator [of worlds] make you happily reach this most excellent sacrament." [He is here supposed to touch the milch cows with the same branch.]

He then spreads cusá grass on the western side, with the tips pointed to the north, reciting the prayer which precedes a lecture of Sámadéva, "Fire! approach to taste [my offering;] thou, who art praised for the gift of oblations. Sit down on this grass, thou, who art the complete performer of the solemn sacrifice."

In like manner he spreads cusá grass on the northern CC-0. Gurukul Kangri University Haridwar Collection. Digitized by S3 Foundation USA

northern side, with the tips pointed to the east, reciting the prayer which precedes a lecture of the Atharvan. "May divine waters be auspicious to us, &c."

Exciting the fire, and sprinkling water on it, he must offer with his hands food smeared with clarified butter, three several times, saying, " Earth! Sky! Heaven!" He then makes five similar oblations to the regent of fire; to the god of medicine; to the assembled deities; to the lord of created beings; and, lastly, to the Creator of the universe." He concludes the sacrament of the Gods with six oblations, reciting six prayers. 1. "Fire! thou dost expiate a sin against the Gods [arising from any failure in divine worship:] may this oblation be efficacious." 2. "Thou dost expatiate a sin against man [arising from a failure in hospitality."] 3.
"Thou dost explate a sin against the manes [from a failure in the performance of obsequies."] 4. "Thou does expiate a sin against my own soul [arising from any blameable act."] 5. "Thou dost expiate repeated sins." 6. "Thou dost expiate every sin I have committed, whether wilfully or unintentionally: may this oblation be efficacious."

HE then worships fire, making an oblation to it with this prayer, "Fire! seven are thy fuels; seven thy tongues; seven thy holy sages; seven thy beloved abodes; seven ways do seven sacrificers worship thee. Thy sources are seven. Be content with this clarified butter. May this oblation be effica-

cious \*."

Т Авоит

<sup>\*</sup> The commentator enumerates the seven tongues of fire, Prawaha, 'Avaha, Udwaha, Samvaha, Vivaha, Pariwaha, Nivaha, (or else Anuwaha;) all of which imply the power of conveying oblations to the deities, to whom offerings are made. The feven holy sages and sacrificers are the Hótri, Maitráwaruna, Bráhmánách' bandasi, Ach'hávác, Pótri, Néshtri, and Agnid'hra; that is, the seven officiating priests at very solemn sacrifices. They worship fire seven ways by the Agnish tóma and other sacrifices. The seven abodes

bill

ABOUT this time he extinguishes the Racshoghna, or lamp lighted previously to the presenting of oblations to the Gods and to the manes. It was lighted for the purpose of repelling evil spirits, and is now extinguished with this text. "In solemn acts of religion, whatever fails through the negligence of those who perform the ceremony, may be perfected

solely through meditation on VISHN'U."

THE Brahman'a should next offer the residue of the oblation to spirits, going round to the different places where such oblations ought to be made, sweeping each spot with his hand, sprinkling water on it, and placing there lumps of food. Near the spot where the vessel of water stands, he presents three such oblations, saying, "salutation to rain; to water; to the earth." At both doors of his house he makes offerings to D'HATRY and VID'HATRY, or BRAHMÁ, the protector and creator. Towards the eight principal points of the compass he places offerings, severally adding salutation to them and to the regents of them. In the middle of the house he presents oblations, with salutation to BRAHMA, to the sky, and to the sun. Afterwards he offers similar oblations to all the Gods; to all beings; to twilight; and to the lord of all beings. He then shifts the sacrificial cord, and looking towards the south and dropping one knee, he presents an oblation to the manes of ancestors, saying, "salutation to progenitors: may this ancestral food be acceptable." This ceremony is not constantly practised, though directed in some rituals; but the residue of the oblation

abodes are the names of the seven worlds: and fire is called in the Véda saptachitica, which seems to allude to seven consecrated hearths. In the sixteen verses called Paurusha, which have been already quoted, the names of the seven worlds, thrice repeated, are understood to be meant by the thrice seven fuels; and the seven oceans are the seven moats surrounding the altar. Fire, like the sun itself, is supposed to emit seven rays: this perhaps may account for the number seven being so often repeated.

lation to the Gods must be left on a clean spot of. ground as an oblation to all beings, intended, however, for dogs and crows in particular. It is presented with the following prayer, which is taken " May Gods, men, cattle, from the Puranas. birds, demigods, benevolent genii, serpents, demons, departed spirits, blood thirsty savages, trees, and all who desire food given by me; 2. May reptiles, insects, flies, and all hungry beings, or spirits concerned in this rite, obtain contentment from this food left for them by me; and may they become happy: 3. May they, who have neither mother, nor tather, nor kinsman, nor food, nor means of obtaining it, be satisfied with that which is offered by me on this spot for their contentment, and be cheerful." Or the following prayer may be used, "To animals who night and day roam in search of food offered to the spirits; he who desires nourishment, should give something: may the lord of nourishment grant it unto me."

He concludes by performing a lustration similar to that which has been already noticed, but much shorter. After thus completing the other sacraments, the householder should present food to his guests, that is, to any person who claims his hospitality. When he has thus allotted out of the food prepared for his own repast, one portion to the Gods, a second to progenitors, a third to all beings, and a fourth to his guests, he and his family may then, and not before, consume the remaining portion of the food. Whenever a spiritual preceptor, a votee, or an officiating priest, a bridegroom, or a articular friend, comes as a guest, he is received with honours, which will be described among the nupture ceremonies. In the entertainment of other guests, to religious rites are performed, nor any prayers record.

The householder is enjoined to give daily alms; but no particular time is prescribed for the distribution of them: he is simply directed to give food

ABOUT this time he extinguishes the Racshoghna, or lamp lighted previously to the presenting of oblations to the Gods and to the manes. It was lighted for the purpose of repelling evil spirits, and is now extinguished with this text. "In solemn acts of religion, whatever fails through the negligence of those who perform the ceremony, may be perfected

solely through meditation on VISHN'U."

THE Brahman'a should next offer the residue of the oblation to spirits, going round to the different places where such oblations ought to be made, sweeping each spot with his hand, sprinkling water on it, and placing there lumps of food. Near the spot where the vessel of water stands, he presents three such oblations, saying, "salutation to rain; to water; to the earth." At both doors of his house he makes offerings to D'HATRY and VID'HATRY, or BRAHMÁ, the protector and creator. Towards the eight principal points of the compass he places offerings, severally adding salutation to them and to the regents of them. In the middle of the house he presents oblations, with salutation to BRAHMA, to the sky, and to the sun. Afterwards he offers similar oblations to all the Gods; to all beings; to twilight; and to the lord of all beings. He then shifts the sacrificial cord, and looking towards the south and dropping one knee, he presents an oblation to the manes of ancestors, saying, "salutation to progenitors: may this ancestral food be acceptable." This ceremony is not constantly practised, though directed in some rituals; but the residue of the oblation

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to religious mendicants whenever they come to his door; but especially if they come at the time when food is ready for his own meal. On the authority of the Purán as it is also a common practice to feed a cow before the householder breaks his own fast\*. He either presents grass, water and corn to her with this text, "Daughter of Surabhi, framed of five elements, auspicious, pure, holy, sprung from the sun, accept this food given by me; salutation unto thee:" or else he conducts the kine to grass, saying, "May cows, who are mothers of the three worlds, and daughters of Surabhi, and who are beneficent, pure, and holy, accept the food given by me."

Some Bráhman'as do still further abridge the compendious ceremony called Vais'wadéva. They offer perfumes and flowers to fire; and make five oblations, out of the food prepared for their own use, to Brahmá, to the lord of created beings, to the household fire, to Cas'yapa and to Anumati, dropping each oblation on fire, or on water, or on the ground, with the usual addition, "may this oblation be efficacious." They then make offerings to all beings, by placing a few lumps of food at the door, or on a quadrangular spot near the fire, with a salutation

<sup>\*</sup> The adoration of a cow is not uncommon. This worship consists in presenting flowers to her, washing her feet, &c. It is entirely different from the practice here noticed. Both seem to be founded on the superstitious notion, that the favour of Surabhi', (the boon granting cow) may be gained by showing kindness to her offspring. The story of VASISHTA'S COW, NANDINI, attended by the king DILI'PA for the sake of obtaining a boon through her means, is a pretty fable grounded on this notion. It is beautifully told by CA/LIDA'SA in the Raghuvan'sa. I cannot refrain from mentioning another fable of a cow named BAHULA', whose expostulations with a tyger, pleading to him to spare her life, form the only admired passage in the ITA'HASAS or collection of stories supposed to be related by BHÍMASE'NA, while he lay at the point of death wounded with innumerable arrows. The fourth day of 'Aswina is sacred to this cow, and named from her Bahulá Chaturthi'. Images of her and of her calf are worshipped; and the extract from the ITIHASAS is on that day read with great solemnity.
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salutation to DHATRY, &c. and they immediately

proceed to their own repast.

HERE too, as in every other matter relating to private morals, the Hindu legislators, and the authors of the Puranas, have heaped together a multitude of precepts, mostly trivial, and not unfrequently. absurd. Some of them relate to diet; they prohibit many sorts of food altogether, and forbid the constant use of others; some regard the acceptance of food, which must on no account be received if it be given with one hand, nor without a leaf or dish; some again prescribe the hour at which the two daily meals which are allowed, should be eaten (namely in the forenoon, and in the evening); others enumerate the places (a boat for example) where a Hindu must not eat, and specify the persons (his sons and the inmates of his house) with whom he should eat, and those (his wife for instance) with whom he should The lawgivers have been no less particular in directing the posture in which the Hindu must sit; the quarter towards which he ought to look, and the precautions he should take to insulate himself, as it were, during his meal, lest he be contaminated by the touch of some undetected sinner who may be present. To explain even in a cursory manner the objects of all these would be tedious, but the mode in which a Hindu takes his repast, conformably with such injunctions as are most cogent, may be briefly stated, and with this I shall close the present essay.

AFTER washing his hands and feet, and sipping water without swallowing it, he sits down on a stool or cushion (but not on a couch nor on a bed), before his plate, which must be placed on a clean spot of ground that has been wiped and smoothed in a quadrangular form, if he be a Bráhman'a; a triangular one, if he be a Cshatriya; circular, if he be a Vais'ya; and in the shape of a crescent, if he belong to the fourth tribe. When the food is first brought in he is required to bow to it, raising both hands in the

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form of humble salutation to his forehead; and he should add, "may this be always ours:" that is, may food never be deficient. When he has sitten down, he should lift the plate with his left hand and bless the food, saying, "thou art invigorating." He sets it down, naming the three worlds, or if the food be handed to him, he says, "may heaven give thee," and then accepts it with these words, "the earth accepts thee;" before he begins eating, he must move his hand round the plate to insulate it, or his own person rather, from the rest of the company. He next offers five lumps of food to Yama by five different titles; he sips and swallows water; he makes five oblations to breath by five distinct names, Prána, Vyána, Apána, Samána, and Udána; and lastly, he wets both eyes. He then eats his repast in silence, lifting the food with all the fingers of his right hand, and afterwards again sips water, saying, "Ambrosial fluid! thou art the couch of VISHN'U and of food.

NOTES.

## NOTES.

(A) THAT Hindus belong to various sects is universally known; but their characteristic differences are not perhaps so generally understood. Five great sects exclusively worship a single deity; one recognises the five divinities which are adored by the other sects respectively, but the followers of this comprehensive scheme mostly select one object of daily devotion, and pay adoration to other deities on particular occasions only. Even they deny the charge of polytheism, and repel the imputation of idolatry; they justify the practice of adoring the images of celestial spirits, by arguments similar to those which have been elsewhere employed in defence of angel and image worship. If the doctrines of the Véda. and even those of the Purán'as, be closely examined. the Hindu theology will be found consistent with monotheism, though it contain the seeds of polytheism and idolatry. I shall take some future occasion of enlarging on this topic: I have here only to remark, that modern Hindus seem to misunderstand the numerous texts, which declare the unity of the godhead, and the identity of VISHNU, SIVA, the Sun, &c. Their theologists have entered into vain disputes on the question, which among the attributes of GOD, shall be deemed characteristic and pre-emi-SANCARA A'CHA'RYA, the celebrated commentator on the Véda, contended for the attributes of S'IVA, and founded or confirmed the sect of S'aivas, who worship MAHA' DÉVA as the supreme being, and deny the independent existence of VISHN'U and other deities. MAD'HAVA ACHARYA and VALLABHA ACHARYA have in like manner established the sect of Vaishn'avas, who adore VISHN'U as GOD. Suras (less numerous than the two sects abovementioned) worship the Sun, and acknowledge no other divinity. The Gan'apatyas adore GAN'ES'A as uniting in his person all the attributes of the deity.

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Before I notice the fifth sect, I must remind the reader that the *Hindu* mythology has personified the abstract and attractive powers of the divinity, and has ascribed sexes to these mythological personages. The Sacti, or energy of an attribute of GOD, is female, and is fabled as the consort of that personified attribute. The Sacti of Siva, whose emblem is the phallus, is herself typified by the female organ. This the Sactas worship, some figuratively, others literally.

Vópapéva, the real author of the Srí Bhágavata, has endeavoured to reconcile all the sects of Hindus by reviving the doctrines of Vya'sa. He recognises all the deities, but as subordinate to the supreme being, or rather as attributes or manifestations of GOD. A new sect has been thus formed, and is denominated from that modern Purán'a; but the numerous followers of it do not seem to have well apprehended the doctrines they profess. They incline much to real polytheism, but do at least reject the derogatory notions of the divinity, which the other

sects seem to have adopted.

The Vaishn'avas, though nominally worshippers of VISHNU, are in fact votaries of deified heroes. The Goculast'has (one branch of this sect) adore CRYSH-N'A, while the Rámanuj worship RAMACHANDRA. Both have again branched into three sects: one consists of the exclusive worshippers of CRYSHN'A, and these only are deemed true and orthodox Vaishn'avas; another joins his favourite Ra'D'Ha' with the hero. A third, called Rád háballabhí, adores Ra'D'HA' only, considering her as the active power of VISHNU. The followers of these last mentioned sects have adopted the singular practice of presenting to their own wives the oblations intended for the goddess; and those among them who follow the left handed path (there is in most sects a right-handed or decent path, and a left-handed or indecent mode of worship;) require their wives to be naked when attending them at their devotions.

AMONG

Among the Rámánuj, some worship Rama only; others Si'ta'; and others both Rama and Si'ta'. None of them practise any indecent mode of worship; and they all, like the Góculast'has, as well as the followers of the Bhágavata, delineate on their foreheads, a double upright line with chalk, or with sandal wood, and a red circlet with red sanders, or with turmerick and lime; but the Rámánuj add an upright red line in the middle of the double white one.

THE Saivas are all worshippers of SIVA and BHA-WA'NI conjointly; and they adore the linga or compound type of this God and Goddess; as the VAISH-N'AVAS do the image of LACSHMI-NA'RA'YAN'A. There are no exclusive worshippers of Siva besides the sect of naked gymnosophists called Lingis; and the exclusive adorers of the Goddess are the Sáctas. In this last mentioned sect, as in most others, there is a right-handed and decent path, and a left-handed and indecent mode of worship: but the indecent worship of this sect is most grossly so, and consists of unbridled debauchery with wine and women. profligate sect is supposed to be numerous though unavowed. In most parts of India, if not in all, they are held in deserved detestation; and even the decent Sáctas do not make public profession of their tenets, nor wear on their foreheads the mark of the sect, lest they should be suspected of belonging to the other branch of it.

THE S'aivas and Sáctas delineate on their foreheads three horizontal lines with ashes obtained, if possible, from the hearth on which a consecrated fire is perpetually maintained; they add a red circlet, which the Saivas make with red sanders, and which the Sáctas, when they avow themselves, mark either with saffron or with turmeric and borax.

THE Sauras are true worshippers of the sun; and some of them, it seems, adore the dormant and active energies of the planet conjointly. This sect,

which

which is not very numerous, is distinguished by the use of red sanders for the horizontal triple line, as well as for the circlet on their foreheads.

The Gán'apatyas have not, so far as I can learn, branched into different sects. Nor can I add any information respecting their peculiar tenets, further than that Gan'e's'a is exclusively worshipped by them. The sect is distinguished by the use of red minium for the circlet on their foreheads. The family of Bráman'as, residing at Chinchwér near Pu'ná, and enjoying the privilege of an hereditary incarnation of Gan'e's'a from father to son, probably belongs to this sect. We may hope for more information on this curious instance of priestcraft and credulity, from the inquiries made on the spot by the gentlemen of the embassy from Bombay, who lately visited that place.

Before I conclude this note, (concerning which it should be remarked, that the information here collected rests chiefly on the authority of verbal communications,) I must add, that the left-handed path, or indecent worship of the several sects, especially that of the Sáctas, is founded on the Tantras, which are for this reason held in disesteem. I was misinformed when I described them as constituting a branch of literature highly esteemed though much neglected. (As. Res. vol. 5, p. 54.) The reverse

would have been more exact.

(B) This prayer, when used upon other occasions, is thus varied, "salutation unto you, O fathers, and unto the saddening season, &c." The six seasons, in the order in which they are here named, are the hot, dewy, rainy, flowery, frosty and sultry seasons. One is indicated in this passage by the name of the month, with which it begins; and a text of the Véda, alluded to by the late Sir William Jones, in his observations on the lunar year of the Hindus, (As. Res. v. 3, p. 258,) specifies Tapas and Collection Collection Digitized by S3 Foundation Phálguna,

Phalguna, as corresponding with Sisira, that is with the dewy season. The text in question shall be subjoined to this note, because it may serve to prove that the Véda, from which it is extracted, (APAS-TAMBA's copy of the Vajurvéda usually denominated the white Yajush,) cannot be much older than the observation of the colures recorded by Para's'ARA (see As. Res. v. 2. p. 268 and 393,) which must have been made nearly 1391 years before the Christian æra (As. Res. v. 5. p. 288.) According to the Véda the lunar Madhu and Madhava, or Chaitra and Vaisác'ha, correspond with Vasanta or the spring. Now the lunar Chaitra, here meant, is the primary lunar month beginning from the conjunction which precedes full moon in or near Chitra, and ending with the conjunction which follows it. Vaisác'ha does in like manner extend from the conjunction which precedes full moon in or near Visác'há to that which follows it. The five nacshatras, Hasta, Chitrá, Swáti, Visác'há and Anurad'há, comprise all the asterisms in which the full moons of Chaitra and Vaisác'ha can happen; and these lunar months may therefore fluctuate between the first degree of Uttara P'halguni and the last of Jyésht'há. Consequently the season of Vasanta might begin at soonest when the sun was in the middle of Purva Bhadrapada, or it might end at latest when the sun was in the middle of Mrigasiras. It appears then, that the limits of Vasanta are Pisces and Taurus; that is Mina and Vrisha. (This corresponds with a text which I shall forthwith quote from a very ancient Hindu author.) Now, if the place of the equinox did then correspond with the position assigned by PARA'S'ARA to the colures, Vasanta might end at the soonest seven or eight days after the equinox, or at latest thirty-eight or thirty-nine days; and on a medium (that is, when the full moon happened in the middle of Chitrá,) twenty-two or twenty-three days after the vernal equinox. This agrees exactly with the 118

real course of the seasons; for the rains do generally begin a week before the summer solstice, but their commencement does vary, in different years, about a fortnight on either side of that period. It seems therefore a probable inference, that such was the position of the equinox when the calendar of months and seasons was adjusted as described in this passage of the Véda. Hence I infer the probability, that the Védas were not arranged in their present form earlier than the fourteenth century before the Christian æra. This, it must be acknowledged, is vague and conjectural; but, if the Védas were compiled in India so early as the commencement of the astronomical Cali yuga, the seasons must have then corresponded with other months; and the passage of the Veda, which shall be forthwith cited, must have disagreed with the natural course of the seasons at the very time it was written. I shall now quote the passage so often alluded to in this note. Mad hus cha Mádhavas' cha Vásanticáv ritú; S'ucras' cha S'uchis' cha graishmáv ritú; Nabhas cha Nabhasyas cha várshicáv ritú; Ishas chójas cha sáradáv ritu; Sahas' cha Sahasyas' cha haimanticáv ritú; Tapas' cha Tapasyas cha s'aisirav ritu." Madhu and Madhava are the two portions of the season Vasanta (or the spring); Sucra and Suchi, of grishma (or the hot season); Nabhas and Nabhasya, of varsha (or the rainy season): Ijas and Ujas; of S'arada (or the sultry season); and Sahas and Sahsya, of himanta (or the frosty season); and Tapas and Tapasya, of s'isra (or the dewy season).

All authors agree that Madhu signifies the month of Chaitra; Mádhava the month of Vaisacha, and so forth. These names are so explained in dictionaries and by astronomical writers, as well as by the commentators on this and other passages, where these names of the months are employed. The author now before me (Divácara Bhát Ta) expressly says, that this text of the Vedá relates to the order of

of the seasons according to the lunar months. He proves it by quoting a text of the Taittiriya Yajurvéda, and afterwards cites the following passage from BAUDHAY'ANA respecting the seasons measured by solar-sidereal time, "Mina Méshayor Mésha Vri shabhayór vá vasantah," &c. Vasanta corresponds with Mina and Mesha, or with Mesha and Vrisha, &c. It should be observed, that the secondary lunar month, which begins and ends with full-moon, cannot be here meant; because this mode of reckoning has never been universal; and the use of it is limited to countries situated to the northward of the Vindhya range of hills, as I learn from the following passage of the Tricand'a mandana. "The lunar month also is of two sorts, commencing either, with the light fortnight, or with the dark one. Some do not admit the month which begins with the dark fortnight; and even by them who do, it is not admitted on the south of the Vind'hya mountains."

## Note on Volume 5th, page 108.

In Nos. 3, 5, and 22 of the 5th volume of Asiatick Researches, there are many typographical errors, occasioned chiefly by the inaccuracy of the amanuensis who transcribed those tracts for transmission to the press. In most instances the correction will readily occur to the reader; but one (p. 108, 1. 14 and 15, requires to be marked, because the error very materially affects the sense of the passage, which is there verbally translated from Raghunandana's treatise on astrology. I shall take the present opportunity of amending that translation, which is not sufficiently exact as it now stands, and I shall add some remarks on it.

"THE Ghat icas, elapsed from the beginning of the day, being doubled and divided by five, are the lords [or regents] of horas considered as a denomination of time. During the day these regents are determined by intervals of six [counted] from the day's own regent; during the night, by intervals of five."

Hóra, though not found in the most familiar vocabularies of the sanscrit language, is noticed in the Viśwa Médini, as bearing several senses. It signifies the diurnal rising of a sign of the zodiac, and also signifies an astrological figure, and half a sign. It is in this last acceptation, that the word is used in the foregoing passage. Considered as a denomination of time, half a sign of the zodiac is the twenty-fourth part of a day, and the coincidence of the name for that measure of time is no less remarkable, than the assigning of a planet to govern each hour, which was done by European as well as Indian astrologers. The hours of the planets (as is remarked by CHAUCER in his treatise on the astrolabe) follow the order of the planets b. 4. d. O. Q. Q. Consequently, the first hour of Saturday being that of Saturn, the twentyfourth

fourth of the same day is the hour of Mars; and the first of the next day is that of the Sun, and so on. This seems to account for the planets giving names to the days of the week: and Gibelin, who denies in his Monde primitif, that the days of the week do so correspond with the order of the planets, mistook by transposing Mercury and Venus. Indian astrology uses the inverse order of the planets; and the succession of them as regents of Ghat's will bring the Moon to be the first of Monday, and the Sun to be the sixtieth of the same day. Consequently the first ghat'i of the next day is that of Mars, and so on through the week. It may be remarked, that the regents of Horas during the day are the same in the astrology of the Hindus with the regents of hours according to the old astrologers of Europe. I shall here close this trivial subject, which has been introduced by me, only because the coincidence here noticed cannot well have been accidental.

## IX.

On the Religious Ceremonies of the HINDUS, and of the BRAMENS especially.

By H. T. COLEBROOKE, Esq.

ESSAY III.

Hospitality has been already mentioned in the preceding Essay, as one of the five great sacraments which constitute the daily duty of a Hindu. formal reception of such guests as are entitled to peculiar honour, was reserved for the subject of the present tract. The religious rites, intermixed with acts of courtesy, which are practised by way of formal hospitality, are nearly the same, whether it be high rank, a venerable profession, or cordial friendship, which entitles the guest to be welcomed with distinction. They chiefly consist in presenting to him a stool to sit on, water for ablutions, and honey mixed with other food for refreshment. It seems to have been anciently the custom to slay a cow on this occasion; and a guest was therefore called góghna, or cow killer. Imperfect traces of this custom remain in the hospitable ceremonies, which I shall now describe from the ritual of Braman'as, who use the Sámavéda. As the marriage ceremony opens with the solemn reception of the bridegroom by the father of the bride, this part of the nuptial solemnity may be fitly chosen as an example of hospitable rites. It will furnish occasion too for proceeding to describe the whole of the marriage ceremony.

HAVING previously performed the obsequies of ancestors, as is usual upon any accession of good fortune, the father of the bride sits down, to await the bridegroom's arrival, in the apartment prepared

for the purpose; and at the time chosen for it, according to the rules of astrology. The jewels, and other presents intended for him, are placed there; a cow is tied on the northern side of the apartment; and a stool or cushion, and other furniture for the reception of the guest, are arranged in order. On his approach, the bride's father rises to welcome him, and recites the following prayer, while the bridegroom stands before him.

"Way she, [who supplies oblations for] religious worship, who constantly follows her calf, and who was the milch-cow, when Yama was [the votary], abound with milk, and fulfil our wishes, year after

"year."

This prayer is seemingly intended for the consecration of the cow, which is let loose in a subsequent. stage of the ceremony, instead of slaying her, as appears to have been anciently the custom. The commentator, whose gloss has been followed in this version of the text, introduces it by the remark, that a guest, entitled to honourable reception, is a spiritual preceptor, a priest, an ascetick, a prince, a bridegroom, a friend, or in short any one, to welcome whose arrival a cow must be tied for the purpose of slaying her, whence a guest is denominated góghna, or cow-killer. The prayer seems to contain an allusion, which I cannot better explain, than by quoting a passage from Ca'lidása's poem, entitled Raghuvansa, where Vas'ISHT'HA informs the king DILIPA that the cow Surabhi, who was offended by his neglect, cannot be now appeased by courtesy shown to herself, because she remains in a place inaccessible to him: "PRACHE'TAS is performing a tedious sacrifice, to supply the oblations of which, Surabhi now abides in the infernal region, whose gates are guarded by huge serpents."

AFTER the prayer above mentioned has been meditated, the bridegroom sits down on a stool or cushion, which is presented to him: he first recites a

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text of the Yajurvéda; "I step on this for the sake of food and other benefits, on this variously splendid footstool." The bride's father presents to him a cushion made of twenty leaves of cus'a grass, holding it up with both hands, and exclaiming, " the cushion! the cushion! the cushion!" The bridegroom replies, "I accept the cushion," and, taking it, places it on the ground under his feet, while he recites the following prayer: "May those plants, over which Soma presides, and which are variously dispersed on the earth, incessantly grant me happiness while this cushion is placed under my feet." Another is presented to him, which he accepts in the same manner, saying, "May those numerous plants, over which Sóma presides, and which are salutary a hundred different ways, incessantly grant me happiness while I sit on this cushion." Instead of these prayers, which are peculiar to the Bráhman'as, that use the Sámavéda, the following text is commonly recited: "I obscure my rivals, as the sun does other luminaries; I tread on this as the type of him who injures me."

THE bride's father next offers a vessel of water. thrice exclaiming, "water for ablutions!" The bridegroom declares his acceptance of it, and looks into the vessel, saying, "Generous water! I view thee; return in the form of fertilizing rain, from him from whom thou dost proceed;" that is, from the sun; for it is acknowledged, says the commentator, that rain proceeds from vapours raised by the heat of the sun. The bridegroom takes up water in the palms of both hands joined together, and throws it on his left foot, saying, "I wash my left foot, and fix prosperity in this realm;" he also throws water on his other foot, saying, "I wash my right foot, and introduce prosperity into this realm;" and he then throws water on both feet, saying, "I wash first one, and then the other; and lastly both feet, that the realm may thrive, and intrepidity be gained." The The following is the text of the Yajush, which is generally used instead of the preceding prayers: "Thou dost afford various elegance; I accept thee, who dost so: afford it for the ablution of my feet."

An arghya (that is, water, rice, and durvá grass in a conch, or in a vessel shaped like one, or rather like a boat,) is next presented to the bridegroom in a similar manner, and accepted by him with equal formality. he pours the water on his own head, saying, "Thou art the splendour of food; through thee may "I become glorious." This prayer is taken from the Yajush; but the followers of that Véda use different texts, accepting the arghya with this prayer, "Ye are waters (áp:) through you may I obtain (áp) all my wishes," and pouring out the water with this text, "I dismiss you to the ocean; return to your source, harmless unto me, most excellent waters! but my beverage is not poured forth."

A VESSEL of water is then offered by the bride's father, who thrice exclaims, "take water to be sipped:" the bridegroom accepts it, saying, "thou art glorious, grant me glory;" or else, "conduct me to glory, endue me with splendour, render me dear to all people, make me owner of cattle, and preserve

me unhurt in all my limbs."

The bride's father fills a vessel with honey, curds, and clarified butter; he covers it with another vessel, and presents it to the bridegroom, exclaiming three times, "take the mad huparca." The bridegroom accepts it; places it on the ground; and looks into it, saying, "thou art glorious: may I become so." He tastes the food three times, saying, "thou art the sustenance of the glorious; thou art the nourishment of the splendid; thou art the food of the fortunate; grant me prosperity." He then silently eats until he be satisfied.

ALTHOUGH these texts be taken from the Yajush, yet, other prayers from the same Véda are used by

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the sects, which follow it. While looking into the vessel, the bridegroom says, "I view thee with the eye of the sun [who draws unto himself what he contemplates."] On accepting the mad'huparca, the bridegroom says, "I take thee with the assent of the generous sun; with the arms of both sons of Aswini; with the hands of the cherishing luminary." He mixes it, saying, "may I mix thee, () venerable present! and remove whatever might be hurtful in the eating of thee." He tastes it three times, saying, "may I eat that sweet, best, and nourishing form of honey, which is the sweet, best, and nourishing form of honey; and may I thus be To come excellent, sweet-tempered, and well nourished by food." After eating until he be satisfied, and after sipping water, he touches his mouth and other parts of his body with his hand, saying, " may there be speech in my mouth; breath in my nostrils; sight in my eye-balls; hearing in my ears; strength in my arms; firmness in my thighs: may my limbs and members remain unhurt together with my soul."

PRESENTS suitable to the rank of the parties are then presented to the guest. At the marriage ceremony, too, the bride is formally given by her father to the bridegroom, in this stage of the solemnity according to some rituals, but later according to others. The hospitable rites are then concluded by letting loose the cow at the intercession of the guest. A barber, who attends for that purpose, exclaims, "the cow! the cow!" Upon which the guest pronounces this text: "Release the cow from the fetters of VARUN'A. May she subdue my foe: may she destroy the enemies of both him (the host) [and me. Dismiss the cow, that she may eat grass and drink water." When the cow has been released, the guest thus addresses her: "I have earnestly entreated this prudent person, [or, according to another

saying, kill not the innocent harmless cow, who is mother of Rudras, daughter of Vasus, sister of A'dityas, and the source of ambrosia." In the Vajurvėda the following prayer is added to this text: "May she expiate my sins, and his (naming the host.) Release her that she may graze." It is evident that the guest's intercessions imply a practice, now become obsolete, of slaying a cow for the pur-

poses of hospitality.

WHILE the bridegroom is welcomed with these ceremonies, or more properly before his arrival, the bride bathes during the recital of the following texts. Three vessels of water are severally poured on her head, with three different prayers. 1. "Love! I know thy name. Thou art called an intoxicating beverage. Bring [the bridegroom] happily. For thee was framed the inebriating draught. Fire! thy best origin is here. Through devotion wert thou created. May this oblation be efficacious." "Damsel! I anoint this thy generative organ with honey, because it is the second mouth of the Creator: by that thou subduest all males, though unsubdued; by that thou art lively, and dost hold dominion. May this oblation be efficacious." 3. "May the primeval ruling sages, who framed the female organ, as a fire that consumeth flesh, and thereby framed a procreating juice, grant the prollifick power, that proceeds from the three-horned [bull] and from the sun. May this oblation be cefficacious." To elucidate the first of these texts, the commentator cites the following passage: "The sage Vas'isht'ha, the regent of the moon, the ruler of heaven, the preceptor of the Gods, and the great forefather of all beings, however old in the practice of devotion, and old by the progress of age, were deluded by women. Liquors distilled ffrom sugar, from grain, and from the blossoms of

Bassia, are three sorts of intoxicating drinks: the fourth is woman, by whom this world is deluded. One, who contemplates a beautiful woman, becomes intoxicated; and so does he who quaffs an inebriating beverage: woman is called an inebriating draught, because she intoxicates by her looks." To explain the second text, the same author quotes a passage of the Véda, intimating that Brahma has two mouths, one containing all holiness, the other allotted for the production of all beings, for they are created from his mouth."

AFTER the bridegroom has tasted the Mad huparca presented to him, as above mentioned, the bride's right hand is placed on his, both having been previously rubbed with turmerick or some other auspicious drug. A matron must bind both hands with cus'a grass amidst the sound of cheerful musick. To this part of the ceremony, the author of the poem entitled Naishada has very prettily alluded in describing the marriage of NALA and DAMAYANT'I (b. xvi. v. 13 & 14.) As he tasted the Mad'huparca, which was presented to him, those spectators, who had foresight, reflected, "he has begun the ceremonies of an auspicious day, because he will quaff the honey of BHAIMI'S lip. The bridegroom's hand exults in the slaughter of foes; the bride's hand has purloined its beauty from the lotos; it is for that reason probably that, in this well-governed realm of Viderbha, both [guilty] hands are fast bound with strong cus'a."

THE bride's father, bidding the attendant priests begin their acclamations, such as "happy day! auspicious be it! prosperity attend! blessings! &c." takes a vessel of water containing tila \* and cusa† grass; and pours it on the hands of the bride and bridegroom, after uttering the words, "O'm! tates sat!"

<sup>\*</sup> Sesamum Indicum.

<sup>+</sup> Poa cynosuroides.

sat!" "God the existent!" and after repeating at full length the names and designations of the bridegroom, of the bride, and of himself; and then solemnly declaring, "I give unto thee this damsel adorned with jewels, and protected by the lord of creatures." The bridegroom replies, "well be it!" The bride's father afterwards gives him a piece of gold, saying, "I this day give thee this gold, as a fee for the purpose of completing the solemn donation made by me." The bridegroom again says, "well be it!" and then recites this text: "Who gave her? to whom did he give her? Love (or free consent) gave her. To love he gave her. Love was the giver. Love was the taker. Love! may this be thine! with love may I enjoy her!" The close of the text is thus varied in the Samaveda: "Love has pervaded the ocean. With love I ac-Love! may this be thine." In the common rituals another prayer is directed to be likewise recited immediately after thus formally accepting the bride. "May the ethereal element give thee. May earth accept thee."

Being thus affianced, the bride and bridegroom then walk forth, while he thus addresses her: " May the regents of space, may air, the sun, and fire, dispel that anxiety, which thou feelest in thy mind; and turn thy heart to me.". He proceeds thus, while they look at each other: " Be gentle in thy aspect, and loyal to thy husband; be fortunate in cattle, amiable in thy mind, and beautiful in thy person: be mother of valiant sons; be fond of delights; be cheerful; and bring prosperity to our bipeds and quadrupeds. First [in a former birth] Soma received thee; a celestial quirister next obtained thee; [in successive transmigrations] the regent of fire was thy third husband: thy fourth is a human being. Soma gave her to a celestial quirister; the Gandharba gave her to the regent of fire; fire gave her to me: with her he has given me wealth and male offspring. May she, a most auspicious cause of prosperity, never desert me, &c."\*

IT should seem that, according to these rituals. the bridegroom gives a waistcloth and mantle to the bride before he is affianced to her; and the ceremony of tying the skirts of their mantles precedes that of her father's solemnly bestowing her on the bridegroom. But the ritual of the Samavedi priests make the gift of the damsel precede the tying of the knot; and, inconsistently enough, directs the mantles to be tied before the bridegroom has clothed the bride. After the donation has been accepted as abovementioned, the bride's father should tie a knot in the bridegroom's mantle over the presents given with the bride: while the affianced pair are looking at each other. The cow is then released in the manner before described; a libation of water is made; and the bride's father meditates the gayatri, and ties a knot with the skirts of the bride's and bridegroom's mantles, after saying, "ye must be inseparably united in matters of duty, wealth, and love." The bridegroom afterwards clothes the bride with the following ceremonies:

HE goes to the principal apartment of the house, prepares a sacrificial fire in the usual mode, and hallows the implements of sacrifice. A friend of the bridegroom walks round the fire, bearing a jar of water, and stops on the south side of it. Another does the same, and places himself on the right hand of the first. The bridegroom then casts four double handfuls of rice, mixed with leaves of S'amit, into a flat basket: near it he places a stone and mullar, after formally touching them; and then, entering

<sup>\*</sup> I omit the remainder of the text, which it would be indecorous to translate into a modern language. The literal sense of it is here subjoined in a Latin version: "Illa redamans accipito fascinum meum, quod ego peramans intromittam in eam, multæ quâ illicebræ sistunt.

<sup>+</sup> Adenanthera aculeata.

entering the house, he causes the bride to be clothed with a new waistcloth and scarf, while he recites the subjoined prayers. "May those generous women, who spun and wound the thread, and who wove the warp and west of this cloth, generously clothe thee to old age: long lived woman! put on this raiment." "Clothe her. Invest her with apparel. Prolong her life to great age. May thou live a hundred years. As long as thou livest, amiable woman! revere [that is, carefully preserve] beauty and wealth." The first of these prayers is nearly the same with that which is used by the followers of the Yajush, when the scarf is put on the bride's shoulder. It is preceded by a different one, which is recited while the waistcloth is wrapped round her. "May thou reach old age. Put on this raiment. Be lovely: be chaste. Live a hundred years. Invite [that is, preserve and obtain] beauty, wealth, and male offspring. Damsel! put on this apparel." Afterwards the following prayer is recited: "May the assembled gods unite our hearts. May the waters unite them. May air unite us. May the creator unite us. May the god of love unite us."

But according to the followers of the Sámavéda, the bridegroom, immediately after the scarf has been placed on the bride's shoulder, conducts her towards the sacrificial fire, saying, "Soma [the regent of the moon] gave her to a heavenly quirister\*: the Gandharba gave her to the regent of fire: fire has given her to me, and with her wealth and male offspring." The bride then goes to the western side of the fire, and recites the following prayer, while she steps oma mat made of Virana grass †, and covered with silk. "May our lord assign me the path by which I may reach

<sup>\*</sup> Gun'Avishn'u here explains Gandharba by the word A'ditya, which may signify the sun, or a deity in general.

<sup>+</sup> Andropogon aromaticum or muricatum.

reach the abode of my lord." She sits down on the edge of the mat, and the bridegroom offers six oblations of clarified butter, reciting the following prayers, while the bride touches his shoulder with her right hand. 1. " May fire come first among the gods; may it rescue her offspring from the fetters of death; may VARUN'A king [of waters] grant that this woman should never bemoan a calamity befallen her children. 2. May the domestic perpetual fire guard her; may it render her progeny longlived; may she never be widowed; may she be mother of surviving children; may she experience the joy of having male offspring. 3. May heaven protect thy back; may air, and the two sons of Aswiní protect thy thighs; may the sun protect thy children while sucking thy breast; and VRYHASPATI protect them until they wear clothes, and afterwards may the assembled gods protect them. 4. May no lamentation arise at night in thy abode; may crying women enter other houses than thine; may thou never admit sorrow to thy breast; may thou prosper in thy husband's house, blest with his survival, and viewing cheerful children. 5. I lift barrenness, the death of children, sin, and every other evil, as I would lift a chaplet off thy head, and I consign the fetters [of premature death] to thy foes. death depart from me, and immortality come; may (YAMA) the child of the sun, render me fearless. Death! follow a different path from that by which we proceed, and from that which the gods travel. To thee who seest and who hearest, I call, saying, burt not our offspring, nor our progenitors: and may this oblation be efficacious." The bridegroom then presents oblations, naming the three worlds, separately and conjointly, and offers either four or five oblations to fire and to the moon. The bride and bridegroom then rise up, and he passes from her left side to her right, and makes her join her hands in a hollow form.

THE rice \*, which had been put into a basket, is then taken up, and the stone is placed before the bride, who treads upon it with the point of her right foot, while the bridegroom recites this prayer, "Ascend this stone, be firm like this stone; distress my foe, and be not subservient to my enemies:" the bridegroom then pours a ladleful of clarified butter on her hands, another person gives her the rice, and two other ladlefuls of butter are poured over it; she then separates her hands, and lets fall the rice on the fire, while the following text is recited; "this woman, casting the rice into the fire, says, may my lord be long lived, may we live a hundred years, and may all my kinsmen prosper; be this oblation efficacious." Afterwards the bridegroom walks round the fire, preceded by the bride, and reciting this text; "the girl goes from her parents to her husband's abode, having strictly observed abstinence [for three days from factitious salt, &c. ] Damsel! by means of thee we repress foes, like a stream of water." The bride again treads on the stone, and makes another oblation of rice, while the subjoined prayer is recited: "The damsel has worshipped the generous sun, and the regent of fire; may he and the generous sun liberate her and me from this [family;] be this oblation efficacious." They afterwards walk round the fire as before. Four or five other oblations are made with the same ceremonies and prayers, varying only the title of the sun, who is here called Pushan, but was entitled Aryaman in the preceding prayer; the bridegroom then pours rice out of the basket into the fire, after pouring one or two ladlefuls of butter on the edge of the basket; with this offering he simply says, "May this oblation to fire be efficacious." THE

<sup>\*</sup> From this use of raw rice at the nuptial ceremony, arises the custom of presenting rice, tinged with turmerick, by way of invitation to guests whose company is requested at a wedding.

The oblations and prayers directed by the Yajurvéda, previous to this period of the solemnity, are very different from those which have been here inserted from the Samávéda; and some of the ceremonies, which will be subsequently noticed, are antici-

pated by the priests, who follow the Yajush.

TWELVE oblations are made with as many prayers. 1. May this oblation be efficacious, and happily conveved to that being, who is fire in the form of a celestial quirister, who is accompanied by truth, and whose abode is truth; may he cherish our holy knowledge and our valour. 2. Efficacious be this oblation to those delightful plants, which are the nymphs of that being, who is fire in the form of a celestial quirister, who is accompanied by truth, and whose abode is truth. 3. and 4. The foregoing prayers are thus varied, "to that being who is the, sun, in the form of a celestial quirister, and who consists wholly of the Samaveda. Those enlivening rays, which are the nymphs of that sun. 5. and 6. That being, who is the moon, in the form of a celestial quirister, and who is a ray of the sun, and named Sushman'a. Those asterisms, which are the nymphs of the moon, and are called Bhécuri\*. 7. and 8. That being, who is air, constantly moving, and travelling every where. Those waters, which are the nymphs of air, and are termed invigorating. 9. and 10. That being, who is the solemn sacrifice in the form of a celestial quirister, who cherishes all beings, and whose pace is elegant. Those sacrificial fees, which are the nymphs of the solemn sacrifice, and are named thanksgivings. 11. and 12. That being, who is mind in the form of a celestial quirister, who is the supreme ruler of creatures, and who is the fabricator of the universe. Thoso

<sup>\*</sup> This term is not expounded by the commentator. Bha signifies an asterism; but the meaning of the compound term is not obvious. Sushman a bears some affinity to Shusumna mentioned in a former essay; but neither of these names is explained in the commentaries which I have consulted.

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Those holy strains (Rich and Saman) who are the nymphs of mind, and are named the means of attain-

ing wishes."

THIRTEEN oblations are next presented, during the recital of as many portions of a single text. "May the supreme ruler of creatures, who is glorious in his victories over [hostile] armies, grant victory to INDRA, the regent of rain: all creatures humbly bow to him; for he is terrible: to him are oblations due; may he grant me victory, knowledge, reflection, regard, self-rule, skill, understanding, power, [returns of] the conjunction and opposition of the sun and moon, and holy texts (Vrihat and Rat'hantara\*)."

EIGHTEEN oblations are then offered, while as many texts are meditated; they differ only in the name of the deity that is invoked. 1. "May fire, lord of [living] beings, protect me in respect of holiness, valour and prayer, and in regard to ancient privileges, to this solemn rite, and to this invocation of deities. 2. May INDRA, lord or regent of the eldest (that is, of the best of beings) protect me, &c. 3. YAMA, lord of the earth. 4. Air, lord of the sky. 5. The sun, lord of heaven. 6. The moon, lord of stars. 7. VRIHASPATI, lord [that is, preceptor] of BRAHMA [and other deities.] 8. MI-TRA (the sun) lord of true beings. 9. VARUNA, lord of waters. 10. The ocean, lord of rivers. 11. Food, lord of tributary powers. 12. Sóma (the moon,) lord of plants. 13. SAVITRI (the generative sun,) lord of pregnant females. 14. RUDRA (S'IVA) lord of [deities, that bear the shape of] of forms." 16. "VISHNU, lord of mountains." 17. "Winds (Maruts), lords of (ganas) sets of divinities." 18. "Fathers, grandfathers, remoter,

<sup>\*</sup> Texts of the Samaveda so named.

an estors, more distant progenitors, their parents,

and grandsires."

Oblations are afterwards made with prayers corresponding to those which have been already cited from the Sámavéda. 1. "May fire come, first among the gods, &c." 2. "May the domestick perpetual fire guard her, &c." 3. "Fire, who dost protect such as perform sacrifices! grant us all blessings in heaven and on earth: grant unto us that various and excellent wealth which is produced on this earth and in heaven." 4. "O best of luminaries! Come, show us an easy path, that our lives may be uninjured. May death depart from me, and immortality come. May the child of the sun render me fearless." 5. "Death! follow a different path, &c."

The bride offers the oblations of rice mixed with leaves of S'ami\*, letting fall the offerings on the fire in the manner before mentioned, and with the same prayers, but recited in a reversed order, and a little varied. 1. "The damsel has worshipped the generous sun in the form of fire. May that generous sun never separate her from this husband." 2. "This woman, casting the rice into the fire, says, may my lord be long lived. May my kinsmen reach old age." 3. "I cast this rice into the fire, that it may become a cause of thy prosperity. May fire

assent to my union with theet.

According to the followers of the Vajurvéda the bridegroom now takes the bride's right hand, reciting a text which will be subsequently quoted. The bride then steps on a stone while this text is recited: "Ascend this stone: be firm like this stone. Subdue such as entertain hostile designs against me, and repel them." The following hymn

<sup>\*</sup> Adenanthera aculeata.

<sup>+</sup> This version is conformable to a different commentary, from that which was followed in the former translation.

is then chanted. "Charming Saraswati, swift as a mare! whom I celebrate in face of this universe; protect this [solemn rite.] O thou! in whom the elements were produced; in whom this universe was framed. I now will sing that hymn [the nuptial text] which constitutes the highest glory of women." The bride and bridegroom afterwards walk round the fire, while the following text is recited: "Fire! thou didst first espouse this female sun [this woman, beautiful like the sun:] now let a human being again espouse her by thy means. Give her, O fire! with offspring, to a [human] husband." The remainder of the rice is then dropped into the fire as an oblation to the god of love.

The next ceremony is the bride's stepping seven steps. It is the most material of all the nuptial rites: for the marriage is complete and irrevokable, so soon as she has taken the seventh step, and not sooner. She is conducted by the bridegroom, and directed by him to step successively into seven circles, while the following texts are uttered: 1. "May Vishn'u cause thee to take one step for the sake of obtaining food." 2. "May Vishn'u cause thee to take one step for the sake of obtaining strength." 3. "Three steps for the sake of solemn acts of religion." 4. "Four steps for the sake of obtaining happiness." 5. "Five steps for the sake of 'cattle." 6. "Six steps for the sake of increase of wealth." 7. "Seven steps for the sake of obtaining priests to perform sacrifices \*." The bridegroom then addresses the bride, "Having completed seven steps, be my companion. May I become thy associate. May none interrupt thy association with me. May such as are disposed to promote

<sup>\*</sup> In the Yajurvéda the texts are varied, so that the third step is for increase of wealth, and the sixth for obtaining happy seasons.

promote our happiness, confirm thy association with me." The bridegroom then addresses the spectators: "This woman is auspicious: approach and view her: and having conferred [by your good wishes] auspicious fortune on her, depart to your respective abodes."

THEN the bridegroom's friend, who stood near the fire bearing a jar of water, advances to the spot where the seventh step was completed, and pours water on the bridegroom's head, and afterwards on the bride's, while a prayer above mentioned is recited: "May waters and all the Gods cleanse our hearts: may air do so; may the Creator do so; may the divine instructress unite our hearts \*."

THE bridegroom then puts his left hand under the bride's hands, which are joined together in a hollow form, and taking her right hand in his, recites the six following texts: 1. "I take thy hand for the sake of good fortune, that thou mayst become old with me, thy husband: may the generous mighty and prolific sun render thee a matron, that I may be a householder." 2. "Be gentle in thy aspect, and loyal to thy husband; be fortunate in cattle; amiable in thy mind, and beautiful in thy person; be mother of surviving sons; be assiduous at the [five] sacraments; be cheerful; and bring prosperity to our bipeds and quadrupeds." 3. "May the lord of creatures grant us progeny, even unto old age; may the sun render that progeny conspicuous. Auspicious deities have given thee to me. Enter thy husband's abode; and bring health to our bipeds and quadrupeds." 4. "O INDRA, who pourest forth rain! render this woman fortunate and the mother of children: grant her ten sons; give her eleven protectors." 5. "Be submissive to thy husband's father, to his mother, to his sister, and

<sup>\*</sup> It is here translated according to the gloss of Gun'A VISHN'U.

In the former version I followed the commentary of HELAYUD'HA.

to his brothers." 6. "Give thy heart to my religious duties; may thy mind follow mine; be thou consentient to my speech. May VRYHASPATI unite thee unto me."

THE followers of the Yajurvéda enlarge the first prayer, and omit the rest, some of which, however, they employ at other periods of the solemnity. take thy hand for the sake of good fortune, that thou mayst become old with me, thy husband: may the deities, namely, the divine sun (aryaman'), and the prolific being (savitri,) and the god of love, give thee as a matron unto me, that I may be a Thou art she. I need the goddess of prosperity. Thou art she. Thou art the goddess of prosperity. I need her. I am the Saman [véda.] Thou art the Rich [véda.] I am the sky. Thou art the earth. Come: let us marry: let us hold conjugal intercourse: let us procreate offspring: let us obtain sons. May they reach old age. May we, being affectionate, glorious and well disposed, see during a hundred years, live a hundred years, and hear a hundred years."

According to the ritual, which conforms to the Sámavéda, the bridegroom sits down near the fire with the bride, and finishes this part of the ceremony by making oblations, while he names the three worlds severally and conjointly. The taking of the bride's hand in marriage is thus completed. In the evening of the same day, so soon as the stars appear, the bride sits down on a bull's hide, which must be of a red colour, and must be placed with the neck towards the east, and the hair upwards. The bridegroom sits down near her, makes oblations while he names the three worlds as usual; and then makes six oblations with the following prayers, and each time pours the remainder of the clarified butter on the bride's head. 1. "I obviate by this full oblation all ill marks in the lines [of thy hands,] in thy eye-lashes, and in the spots [on thy body]."

2. "I obviate by this full oblation all the ill marks in thy hair; and whatever is sinful in thy looking, or in thy crying."

3. "I obviate by this full oblation all that may be sinful in thy temper, in thy speaking, and in thy laughing."

4. "I obviate by this full oblation all the ill marks in thy teeth, and in the dark intervals between them; in thy hands, and in thy feet."

5. "I obviate by this full oblation all the ill marks on thy thighs, on thy privy part, on thy haunches, and on the lineaments of thy figure."

6. "Whatever natural or accidental evil marks were on all thy limbs, I have obviated all such marks by these full oblations of clarified butter. May this oblation be efficacious."

The bride and bridegroom rise up; and he shews her the polar star, reciting the following text: "Heaven is stable; the earth is stable; this universe is stable; these mountains are stable; may this woman be stable in her husband's family. The bride salutes the bridegroom, naming herself and family, and adding a respectful interjection. The bridegroom replies, "be long lived and happy." Matrons then pour water, mixed with leaves, upon the bride and bridegroom, out of jars, which had been previously placed on an altar prepared for the purpose; and the bridegroom again makes oblations with the names of the worlds, by way of closing this part of the ceremony.

The bridegroom afterwards eats food prepared without factitious salt. During this meal he recites the following prayers: "I bind with the fetters of food thy heart and mind to the gem [of my soul]; I bind them with nourishment, which is the thread of life; I bind them with the knot of truth." 2. "May that heart which is yours, become my heart;

<sup>\*</sup> Dhruva, the pole, also signifies stable, fixed, steady, firm.

and this heart, which is mine, become thy heart."

3. "Since food is the bond of life, I bind thee therewith." The remainder of the food must be

then given to the bride.

DURING the three subsequent days, the married couple must abstain from factitious salt, live chastely and austerely, and sleep on the ground. On the following day, that is, on the fourth exclusively \*, the bridegroom conducts the bride to his own house on a carriage or other suitable conveyance. He recites the following text when she ascends the carriage: "O wife of the sun! ascend this vehicle resembling the beautiful blossoms of the cotton tree t, and butea t, tinged with various tints; and coloured like gold; well constructed; furnished with good wheels; and the source of ambrosia [that is, of blessings: | bring happiness to thy husband." Proceeding with his bride, he, or some other person for him, recites the following text on their coming to a cross road: "May robbers, who infest the road, remain ignorant [of this journey,] may the married couple reach a place of security and difficult access by easy roads, and may foes keep aloof."

ALIGHTING from the carriage, the bridegroom leads the bride into the house, chanting the hymn called Vámadévya. Matrons welcome the bride, and make her sit down on a bull's hide, of the same colour, and placed in the same manner as before. The bridegroom then recites the following prayer: "May kine here produce numerous young; may horses,

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<sup>\*</sup> The Muslemans of India do not scruple to borrow from the Hindus superstitious ceremonies that are celebrated with festivity. They take an active part in the gambols of the Hóli, and even solicit the favours of the Indian Plutus, at the Diwali. The bridal procession, on the fourth day, with all the sports and gambols of the Chaut hi (Chaturt'hi), is evidently copied from the similar customs of the Hindus. In Bengal the Muslemans have even adopted the premature marriage of infant brides and bridegrooms.

<sup>+</sup> Bombax heptaphyllum.

<sup>‡</sup> Butca frondosa CC-0. Gurukul Kangri University Haridwar Collection. Digitized by S3 Foundation USA

and human beings do so; and may the deity sit here, by whose favour sacrifices are accomplished

with gifts a thousand fold.

THE women then place a young child in the bride's lap; they put roots of lotos, or else fruit of different kinds, in his hand. The bridegroom takes up the child, and then prepares a sacrificial fire in the usual manner, and makes eight oblations with the following prayers, preceded and followed by the usual oblations to the three worlds. 1. "May there be cheerfulness here." 2. "May thine own [kindred] be kind here." 3. "May there be pleasure here." 4. "Sport thou here." 5. "May there be kindness here with me." 6. "May thine own [kindred] be here, benevolent towards me." 7. "May there be here delight towards me." 8. "Be thou her& joyous towards me." The bride then salutes her father-in-law and the other relatives of her husband.

AFTERWARDS the bridegroom prepares another sacrificial fire, and sits down with the bride on his right hand. He makes twenty oblations with the following prayers, preceded and followed as usual by oblations to the three worlds. The remainder of each ladleful is thrown into a jar of water, which is afterwards poured on the bride's head. 1. "Fire, expiator of evil! thou dost atone evils for the gods themselves. I, a priest, approach thee, desirous of soliciting thee to remove any sinful taint in the beauty of this woman." 2. "Air, expiator of evil! &c." 3. " Moon, expiator of evil! &c." 4. "Sun, expiator of evil! &c." 5. "Fire, air, moon, and sun, expiators of evil! ye do atone evils for the gods. I, a priest, approach thee, desirous of soliciting thee to remove any sinful taint in the beauty of this woman." 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, "soliciting thee to remove any thing in her person which might destroy her husband." 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, "any thing

in her person which might make her negligent of cattle."

THE priests who use the Yajurvéda, make only five oblations with as many prayers addrest to fire, air, the sun, the moon, and the Gandharba or celestial quirister: praying them to remove any thing in the person of the bride, which might be injurious to her husband, to her offspring, to cattle, to the household, and to honour and glory. The following text is recited while the water is poured on the bride's head: "That blameable portion of thy person, which would have been injurious to thy husband, thy offspring, thy cattle, thy household, and thy honour, I render destructive of paramours: may thy body, [thus cleared from evil,] reach old age with me." The bride is then fed with food prepared in a caldron, and the following text is recited: "I unite thy breath with my breath; thy bones with my bones; thy flesh with my flesh; and thy skin with my skin."

THE ceremonies, of which the nuptial solemnity consists, may be here recapitulated. The bridegroom goes in procession to the house where the bride's father resides, and is there welcomed as a guest. The bride is given to him by her father in the form usual at every solemn donation; and their hands are bound together with grass. He clothes the bride with an upper and lower garment; and the skirts of her mantle and his are tied together. The bridegroom makes oblations to fire, and the bride drops rice on it as an oblation. The bridegroom solemnly takes her hand in marriage. She treads on a stone and mullar. They walk round the fire. The bride steps seven times, conducted by the bridegroom, and he then dismisses the spectators, the marriage being now complete and irrevokable. In the evening of the same day the bride sits down on a bull's hide, and the bridegroom points out to her the polar

star as an emblem of stability. They then partake of a meal. The bridegroom remains three days at the house of the bride's father. On the fourth day, he conducts her to his own house in solemn procession. She is there welcomed by his kindred: and

the solemnity ends with oblations to fire.

Among Hindus a girl is married before the age of puberty. The law even censures the delay of her marriage beyond the tenth year. For this reason, and because the bridegroom too may be an infant, it is rare that a marriage should be consummated until long after its solemnization. The recital of prayers on this occasion constitutes it a religious ceremony, and it is the first of those that are performed for the purpose of expiating the sinful taint which a child is supposed to contract in the womb of his mother. They shall be described in a future

essay.

On the practice of immature nuptials, a subject suggested in the preceding paragraph, it may be remarked, that it arises from a laudable motive; from a sense of duty incumbent on a father, who considers as a debt the obligation of providing a suitable match for his daughter. This notion, which is strongly inculcated by Hindu legislators, is forcibly impressed on the minds of parents. But in their zeal to dispose of a daughter in marriage, they do not perhaps sufficiently consult her domestic felicity. By the death of an infant husband, she is condemned to virgin widowhood for the period of her life. If both survive, the habitual bickerings of their infancy are prolonged in perpetual discord.

NUMEROUS restrictions in the assortment of matches impose on parents this necessity of embracing the earliest opportunity of affiancing their children to fit companions. The intermarriages of different classes, formerly permitted, with certain limitations, are now wholly forbidden. The prohibited degrees degrees extend to the sixth of affinity: and even the bearing of the same family name is a sufficient

cause of impediment.

To conclude the subject of nuptials, I shall only add, that eight forms are noticed by *Hindu* legislators. (Menu, c. 3.) But one only, which has been here described from the Indian rituals, is now used.

X

An Account of a Method for extending a Geographical Survey across the Peninsula of India.

By Brigade Major Lambton.

Communicated by permission of the Right Honourable the Governor of Fort St. George, in Council.

HAVING long reflected on the great advantage to general geography that would be derived from extending a survey across the peninsula of India, for the purpose of determining the positions of the principal geographical points; and seeing that, by the success of the British arms during the late glorious campaign, a district of country is acquired, which not only opens a free communication with the Malabar coast, but from its nature affords a most admirable means of connecting that with the coast of Coromandel by an uninterrupted series of triangles, and of continuing that series to an almost unlimited extent in every other direction; I was induced to communicate my ideas to the right honourable the Governor in Council at Madras, who has since been pleased to appoint me to conduct that service, and has supported me with a liberality by which alone it could be carried into execution.

It is scarcely necessary to say, what the advantage will be of ascertaining the great geographical features of a country upon correct mathematical principles; for then after surveys of different districts have been made, in the usual mode, they can be combined into one general map. One surveyor is employed in a district at Sera; and another in

the district of Chittledroog. They both have a reference to those particular stations, and their surveys, with respect to them, may be relatively correct: and if Sera and Chittledroog be laid down right, their respective surveys will fall into their

right places on the globe.

It will be unnecessary to state to the Society the imperfect methods that have generally been practised by supposing the earth to be a flat; and yet it has been on this supposition that surveys have been made in general, and corrected by astronomical observation. But although that method of correction may answer for determining the position of places at a great distance, where an error of five or six minutes will be of no very great consequence, yet in laying down the longitudes of places progressively that are not more than twenty miles from one another, it is evident that errors of such a magnitude are not to be overlooked; and an error, even of one mile, would place objects in situations widely different from that which they actually hold on the face of the globe.

IF we consider the earth as an exact sphere, we should naturally advert to spherical computation. And having a base actually measured, and reduced to the level, it would be a part of a great circle, while the horizontal angle would be the angle made by two great circles, intersecting each other at the point where the angle was taken. On this hypothesis, the process of extending a survey would be reduced to as great a degree of simplicity as by the method of plane triangles. For then the length of a degree on the meridian could be easily obtained by the celestial arc, and would be equal to a degree in any other direction. The radius of curvature, or the semidiameter of the earth, might also be easily deduced from thence, and being every where the same, the chord of any arc, or the direct distance between two objects subtending that arc, could be computed without the trouble of correcting the observed angles. The difference of longitude of any two points might be as easily had; for, knowing the arc between them (which would always correspond with a celestial arc,) and the co-latitudes of the two places, the angle at the pole, or difference

of longitude, might be found.

Bur since the earth is not a sphere, but an oblate spheroid, and differing considerably from a sphere, it becomes necessary to determine the length of a degree on the meridian, and a degree at right angles to that meridian, making the point of intersection of the meridian and its perpendicular the middle point of each degree. Now, in determining the measure of those degrees, if the first measurement, or base line, cannot be had in the meridian, two other objects must be chosen therein, and their distance computed trigonometrically, and then compared with the celestial arc. But here the operations, for obtaining this distance, will be attended with some trouble, on account of its being necessary to calculate the chords of the arcs, and the difficulty of determining the angles made by these chords to a For here we are sufficient degree of accuracy. obliged to assume data, and proceed by an approximating method. And, 1st, we must either suppose the earth to be a sphere, and by taking the three angles made by the intersections of three great circles of that sphere, find the sides in degrees and minutes: then take double the sines of half the arcs, or the chords, and there will be had the three sides of a plane triangle, defined in parts of the radius. With these three sides determine the three angles, and these are the angles for calculating the direct dis-Hence, by knowing the base in fathoms, the chord subtending that base (or arc) may also be had in fathoms, by computing from the radius of the assumed sphere, which we must suppose to be of some given magnitude. Then having the length of the chord in fathoms, and the angles corrected as CC-0. Gurukul Kangri University Haridwar Collection. Digitized by S3 Foundation USA

above, the other chords can be obtained in fathoms also.

OR 2d, Since the chords of small arcs differ very little from those arcs, it will be better to find the distance of the objects from one another by plane trigonometry, the base being one distance. Then we must suppose the earth to be an ellipsoid, whose two diameters have to each other a given ratio. From that, and taking a degree on the meridian to be unity, the ratio of that degree, to a degree in any given direction with the meridian, may be had, as will be shewn hereafter: and that ratio will enable us to allow the appropriate number of degrees and minutes to the computed sides of the triangle, which may then be considered as a spherical one, but whose sides are arcs of circles, having evidently different radii of curvature. It is with these ares, and the observed angles, from which the angles made by the chords are to be obtained. M. DE LAMBRE has given a formula for determining the angles made by the chords of two arcs under these circumstances, having the arcs themselves and the horizontal angle given. The formula is as follows: Let A =angle made by the chords: a = the horizontal or observed angle; D and d the arcs, in degrees, minutes, &c. Then if x = the correction to be applied to the horizontal angle, A will be equal a+x. And the first approximate value of  $x = -\frac{1}{2} \tan \frac{1}{2} a$ . v. s. (D+d)The second approximate value  $= -(\frac{1}{2} \tan \frac{1}{2} a)$ . v. s.  $\frac{1}{2}(D+d) - \frac{1}{2}\cot \frac{1}{2}a$ . v. s.  $\frac{1}{2}(D-d)$  which is sufficiently near for this purpose; whence  $A=a-(\frac{1}{2}\tan a)$  $\frac{1}{2}$  a. v. s.  $\frac{1}{2}$   $(D+d)-\frac{1}{2}$  cot.  $\frac{1}{2}$  a. v. s.  $\frac{1}{2}$  (D-d). And if greater exactness be required, it will be A=a- $(\frac{1}{2} \tan \frac{1}{2} a. v. s. \frac{1}{2} D + d - \frac{1}{2} \cot \frac{1}{2} a. v. s. \frac{1}{2} D - d)$ v. s. x. cot. a. Where x is  $= -(\frac{1}{2} \tan \frac{1}{2} a. v. s. \frac{1}{2})$  $D+d-\frac{1}{2}\cot \frac{1}{2}a$ . v. s.  $\frac{1}{2}D-d$ ), its second approximate value. - And the last term will change its sign to affirmative, if a be greater than 90°. A demonstration of the above formula has been given by the Astronomer Royal, and may be seen in the Phil.

Transactions for the year 1797, p. 450.

HAVING, by this method, got the angles made by the chords to very near the truth, the rest, with respect to distances, is evident. For the chord of the measured arc (or base) may be had, since by computing the lengths of arcs in any direction, on the ellipsoid, the radius of curvature of that arc is likewise had, and thence the chord. And that chord forms the side of a plane triangle, from which, and the corrected angles, all the data may be had for proceeding upon each of the sides of the first plane triangle.

Now, to determine any portion of a degree on the earth's surface in the meridian, two points may be taken therein, and the direct distance between them ascertained by the above method. Then, by taking the zenith distance of a known star, when passing the meridian, at each extremity of the distance, the celestial arc becomes known in degrees, minutes, &c. from which the terrestrial arc between the two objects is had in degrees, minutes, &c. also:—and having determined the chord in fathoms, the arc may likewise be determined in fathoms, which being compared with the degrees, minutes, &c. the value of a degree is thereby obtained in fathoms.

The length of a degree, at right angles to the meridian, is also easily known by spherical computation, having the latitude of the point of intersection, and the latitude of an object any where in a direction perpendicular to the meridian at that point. For then the arc between these two points, and the two celestial arcs or colatitudes, will form a right angled triangle, two sides of which are given to find the third, which is the arc in question. And this will apply either to the sphere or spheroid. That arc being known, in degrees and minutes, and the chord

chord having been previously determined in fathoms, being a side of one of those plane triangles, formed by the chords of the terrestrial arcs; the length of that arc can also be determined in fathoms; and, therefore, a degree may be determined in fathoms, having its middle point the point of intersection with the meridian.

Thus having obtained the length of a degree upon the meridian, and its perpendicular, in any given latitude, they will serve as data for computing the latitude and longitude of places near that parallel, and near to that, or a known meridian, by means of the chord of a terrestrial arc, oblique to the meridian and its perpendicular, and the chord of the meridional arc intercepted by a great circle falling from the extremity of the oblique chord, and cutting the meridian at right angles. For it will be easy to find the measure either of the part of the meridian, or the portion of the circle at right angles thereto (even by using the observed angles;) and if these be converted into degrees, minutes, &c. according to the length of a degree upon the respective circles, the former will give the difference of latitude, and consequently, by addition or subtraction, the real latitude: the latter, with the co-latitude thus obtained, will enable us to find the angle at the pole. In both these cases the truth may be obtained to within one-fourth, and generally one-tenth of a second, (limiting the operations to a certain extent from a known parallel and meridian;) and that without having recourse to observation, or depending on any hypothesis of the earth's figure.

It will readily occur to the reader, that had the ratio of the assumed diameters been what it really is, and supposing the earth to be an exact ellipsoid, the computed and measured degrees ought to come out the same. But the reason for computing the length of ellipsoidal arcs was only to gain the approximate

values

values of the angles made by the chords, by doing which, we can come nearer the truth, than by supposing them to be spherical; and though these arcs may not be precisely correct, yet it has been found that a trifling deviation from the truth will not sen-

sibly affect the angles.

Ir may be further observed, that we are not certain, either of the ratio of the earth's diameters, or of its being an ellipsoid. We have assumed that figure, and have drawn our results from the average of different measurements, made in different parallels, though among themselves they appear contradictory: but we must adopt them, until better measurements can be made, to enable us to come nearer the truth. Should the figure of the earth prove to be the ellipsoid, and the ratio of the equatorial diameter to the polar axis become known, a celestial arc would afford a datum in any assigned latitude, by which, and the observed angles corrected, the direct distances might be computed, and also the distance of any object from a known meridian and its perpendicular, and consequently its longitude and latitude.

Bur should the earth prove to be neither an ellipsoid, nor a figure generated by any particular curve, of known properties, but a figure whose meridional section is bounded by no law of curvature, then we can obtain nothing until we have an actual measurement, to be applied as has been already mentioned.

Thus much I have thought necessary to premise, that the general principles of the work I have before me may be understood;—principles, which I believe have never been applied in Indian geography, though in England sufficient has been done to manifest their perfection, and to give those gentlemen, who have applied them, a distinguished reputation in the annals of science: and I own, that it was from reading the details of their operations I was first led to consider the subject. The publications of the late Gen.

GEN. Roy, relative to his measurements on Houns-low-heath and Rumney-marsh, with his continuations of triangles;—and the later accounts of a trigonometrical survey along the southern and eastern coasts of England, by Lieut. Col. Williams, Capt. Mudge, and Mr. Dalby, are works which I consider as a treasure.

WITH respect to the plan of my operations, had I been possessed of an instrument, which I could have thought sufficiently accurate for taking horizontal angles, I should have measured a base somewhere near the eastern coast, both on account of its being a more regular country, and nearer the level of the sea, to which all future measurements and distances must be reduced, and because I could have computed my longitude from the Madras observatory. There would have been, besides, some probability of getting a measurement in the meridian, or so near it, that all oblique directions might have been accurately reduced to it, and that would be a means of at once obtaining the length of a degree on the meridian: and as a degree has never yet been measured in this parallel, it is no trifling circumstance to look forward to, because we should get a datum in the first instance, for computing the ratio of the earth's diameters, considering it to be an ellipsoid. And as I have the same kind of chain, made by the same incomparable artist, Mr. RAMSDEN, as that with which COLONEL WILLIAMS and CAPTAIN MUDGE measured their bases; from a comparison between two measurements made in parallels so distant from each other, with instruments of the same kind, and reduced to the same standard temperature; there is some reason to hope that computations made from such measurements may come nearer the truth than any other.

However, this is an object to which I look forward when those instruments arrive, which govern-

ment

ment has been pleased to authorise me to send for. At present it seemed most desirable that I should begin in Mysore, and endeavour to forward the surveys of that country. Having made a first measurement there, I think, with the instruments I at present possess, it will be best not to extend my operations too far from some assumed meridian, as I can depend more upon meridional celestial arcs than upon any computed oblique ones. The instrument I have for taking zenith distances is a zenith sector of five feet radius, made by Mr. RAMSDEN, with a micrometer scale that defines nearly one-tenth of a second. With this I can determine two parallels of latitude to be depended on between which to compute by terrestrial measure the relative situations of intermediate places as to latitude. The instrument with which I take horizontal angles is a circular transit instrument, made by Mr. TROUGHTON, whose horizontal limb is only eight inches radius, without a micrometer, but which is graduated to 10"; and though it is an excellent instrument, correct and easy in its adjustments, yet its powers are not sufficient for taking horizontal angles where they are to be reduced to the angles made by the chords.

# SECTION I.

Containing an Account of the Measurement of a Base Line on the Table Land of the Mysore Country near Bangalore.

I MENTIONED above my reasons for making a measurement in the Mysore country. This measurement may, however, not be thought so satisfactory as if it had been done near the sea coast, on account of

of not being certain as to the exact height above the level of the sea, since that height was determined by corresponding barometrical observations made at Madras, and at each extremity of the base, and I am well aware that those results will be exceptionable. But I was careful to found my computations on those observations only which were made when a perfect uniformity in the state of the atmosphere had existed for several days together; that is, when the barometer and thermometer at each place, and at the same hour of the day, had suffered scarcely any sensible variation for a considerable time. And since the quantity to be deducted from the base on account of the height is little more than 8, 5 feet, upon the whole, any error that might arise in correcting for the temperature and density of the atmosphere would be but trifling; I shall therefore, for the present, rest satisfied until the height can be determined trigonometrically, and proceed to give an account of the operations of the measurement, and of the apparatus made use of.

## CHAIN.

The chain is of blistered steel, constructed by Mr. Ramsden, and is precisely alike, in every respect, with that used by General Roy in measuring his base of verification on Rumney marsh. It consists of 40 links of 2½ feet each, measuring in the whole 100 feet. It has two brass register heads, with a scale of six inches to each; these scales slide in the brass heads, and are moved by a finger screw, for the purpose of adjusting exactly the two extremities of the chain when extended: in short, every part of it is the same as the one above mentioned, which has been fully described in the Philosophical Transactions of 1790, and therefore it is unnecessary to say more on the construction of that instrument here.

IT appears from the best information I have respecting it, that it was measured off by the brass standard when the thermometer stood at 62°, and was, in that temperature, exactly 100 feet in length.

FROM the want of a proper standard scale and beam compasses, I would not undertake to determine its length, compared with brass; because I did not think that laying off any determined number of feet from the sliders in the register heads, and by a pair of common compasses, could be done with sufficient accuracy, so as to enable me to find out at what degree of temperature the chain had measured 100 feet by the brass scale. And as I had been informed by DOCTOR DINWIDDIE, from whom it was purchased, that, to the best of his recollection, it had been adjusted to 100 feet at the standard temperature of 62°; I therefore rested satisfied until further information may be obtained respecting it; and it is probable, that any correction on account of temperature, will not amount to more than two or three feet, and an error of that magnitude in a length of near 71 miles cannot be of very great moment in geography, which is the principal object at present.

THERE is another circumstance it may be necessary to mention with respect to the chain. From the same want of a standard measure, I have not attempted to determine its wear; but I observe that in the measurement of the base of verification on Salisbury plains, the chain used there was very little affected by being in use about seven weeks. And in order to prevent the wear as much as possible, I allotted twenty coolies, that is one to every two links, whose sole business it was to lift out the chain and lay it on the ground whilst the coffers were moved forward, and then to replace it when they were ready. All this was done with the greatest care, and always by the word given them, that the motion might be as trifling as possible. This mode was practised during the whole measurement, so that I am in hopes hopes no very serious error can arise from the wear of the chain.

#### COFFERS.

Those were of twenty feet each in length, six inches wide in the middle, three at the extremities, and about four inches deep; the sides were near seven inches, and passed below the bottom two inches—they were not of the dimensions of those of General Roy, on account of the difficulty of producing boards for the purpose. The same difficulty obliged me to be satisfied with five in place of fifteen; lbut as I had a great number of people with me, I capprehended no great difficulty in taking out the chain and laying it on the ground while the coffers were moved forward.

## PICKETS.

.. Twelve strong pickets of three inches diameter, thooped and shod with iron, were made use of-they were of different lengths, from three to four feet; on the top of each picket was placed a piece of very thard seasoned wood, eight inches in length and four in breadth, on the under side of which was fixed with tiwo screws, a hoop of iron, fitted to receive the one on the picket, and to screw firmly upon it by a simall screw on the side, when placed properly in the line. This simple contrivance seems to answer the intended purpose for receiving and supporting the ends of the coffers; the two pickets on which the prass register heads were placed, are in all respects the same as those described by GENERAL ROY. There is also the same apparatus for the drawing post and weight post, only in place of the iron ferrule, the wrass clamp and pulley are fixed upon pieces of very

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hard well-seasoned wood, in a manner so simple as to

render a description unnecessary.

I FOUND, however, in the course of practice, that tripods, with elevating screws in the centre, answered much better than the pickets for the intermediate ends of the coffers, particularly as a very great part of the ground was hard and stony. Those tripods are described by GENERAL ROY. Those which I used, as I had not the means of getting better, were no more than the common wooden press screw, made to move up and down by a female screw with handles; the top of the tripod being a thick piece of wood for the screw to pass through, with another piece of wood three or four inches below that to keep it steady—but a boxed tube to receive the screw is to be preferred.

### BONING TELESCOPE.

For the purpose of fixing the objects in alliguement, I used the circular transit instrument, which answers remarkably well, both for that purpose and for laying off the principal elevations and depressions of the different hypothenuses; but when the pickets are to be placed so that the coffers may be laid in the line of the hypothenuse, I made use of one of Mr. RAMSDEN's spirit levels; but in place of using its three legs, I took them off and placed the telescope, with its adjusting screws, upon a tripod, having an elevating screw in the centre, passing through a tube with a small iron screw to keep it firm. On the top of this elevating screw was fixed a piece of board about ten inches square-upon that again was placed another piece, which was made to move in a groove by a finger screw, and upon this moveable piece the levelling telescope, with its apparatus, was fixed, having its axis at right angles to the direction of the groove, so that by the finger screw it could easily be moved to the right or left, and brought into the direction of the allignement.

A SMALL square picket, or boning rod, with a piece ten inches in length, fixed at right angles, and made to slide up and down, and fasten by a small screw, was placed at the further extremity of the lhypothenuse, and the sliding piece put at a convemient height: that piece therefore marked the angle of elevation or depression. The height of the axis of the transit circle, (when that instrument was used,) lhaving been taken by a plumb line, as well as the point directly under its centre: Then having marked out one hundred feet, by a common measure, exactly in the allignement, I removed the transit, and placed the tripod, with its apparatus, precisely on the spot which marked its centre; and measured its height above that spot, comparing the centre, on which the llevelling telescope moves, with the transverse axis of the transit, (having previously determined the most convenient height for the coffers to be from the ground.) Then I took the exact measure of the sspace between the axis of the transit and that of the llevelling telescope, and applied it to the boning rod at the extremity of the hypothenuse, and made a mark, at that distance, below the cross slider.

THE level was then adjusted by the screws and spirit level, and its centre brought into the allignement; which being done, the axis of the telescope was elevated, or depressed, until the cross wire cor-

responded with the mark on the boning rod.

If the angle of the hypothenuse be beyond the limits of the vertical screw of the level, the tripod must incline so as to bring it within those limits, and that angle of inclination noticed, that the perpendicular height may be justly determined; that however niever happened.

Were in general very small, I contrived to take them with a small sextant, both on account of saving time, and to avoid running unnecessary risk with the cir-

3 cular

cular instrument. The method which I used was as follows:

I FIRST laid out the direction of the hypothenuse, by a boning rod, placed at a distance, to be seen with the small telescope of the sextant. Another boning rod was then placed at a convenient distance. so that the cross vane might be brought to correspond with the cross wires of the levelling telescope, after it had been carefully adjusted to the horizontal direction by the spirit level. Then, upon the same boning rod was placed another cross vane, and the telescope elevated, or depressed, by the finger screw, until the cross wires were brought into the direction of the hypothenuse by the vane on the distant boning rod. -In taking the angle with the sextant, I placed the axis of motion close to the Y of the levelling telescope, at the opposite end, with the finger screw; so that the two vanes, on the distant and near boning rods, appeared to correspond in the reflector of the sextant, and then the angle was taken.

In this manner all the smaller angles of elevation and depression were taken, and though not exactly in the way I could have wished, yet I have no doubt of their being nearly correct, perhaps as much so as

any direction can be measured.

Hence the line was determined, which passed through the axis of the levelling telescope, and was parallel to the hypothenuse. In order to place the pickets for receiving the coffers, a piece of wood was contrived for being placed upon the head of each, with a cross vane to slide up and down. Then, a picket was driven, at any given distance in the allignement, and the above piece applied to its top. When the cross piece corresponded with the mark, the picket remained in that state, and the rest of them were driven down in the same manner, and the piece applied to their respective heads; and being all adjusted by that means, their tops were consequently parallel to the line of direction.

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		-		196							22217.33		
No. of the Hyp	Length of each in Feet.	Angles of		Oblique hor, angles with the line.		Deductions from each	Deductions from oblique	Perpendicular.		Commencement from		Mean of	1
		Elevat.	Depr.	To the left.	To the right.	Hypothenufe.	Directions.	Afcents.	Descents.		Below Inche	five Thermo	
46 47 48	900 400 200	2 30	32 30			,05960		Feet. 0,29089	Feet. 10,34085	10,1	11,4	89,54	
49 50 51 52	400 400 200 200		27 30 30		0.44	,012 <sup>9</sup> 2 ,01524			3,19973 3,49165	4,2	3,5	95,50 82.80 78,12 84,56 83,80 85.20	
53 54 55 56	100 300 400 500	1 19 1 46			9 31 44	,10560 ,28765	e as officer	9,19124 15,41,65		6.2	10,1 29 7:4	85.20 79.66 79.07 85,50	
57 £8 59 60	500 500 200 400	0 50	0 24	5 37 16		,05290	37,24871	7,27190 2,98159	2,79252	15,2	18 13.5 8,5 8	83,c8 93,20 86,75	Th
61 63 64 65 66	300 800 400 2097,21048		51 51 48			,033co ,088co ,039co			4.4.1044 11,86784 5,58488		14.9 12.9 13.0 16,4	87,43 91,27 83,75	taken the fi fundra Th
65 66 67 68 69 70	650 400 400 400 500 300	1 11 1 24 30 1 3 48 30 27 30				,12798 ,12082 ,c6716 ,05818 ,016c0 ,00615	22,05226	12,89c96 9,831c3 7,32996 5,643c4 3,9967 1,91985			7,5 1,5 8,8	89,co 88,80 87,20 85,47 79,14 86,47	during the ex fallen, had e
:71	400 400 400 200	16 56 30 1 24 35 1 28	12 30			,00264 ,00432 ,05400 ,05070		1,86168 6.57378 4,88614 4,07236	1,45140	0,9	8,4 5,1 9,6 1,2	76.45 81.70 87,90 70.90 78.20	way ac gles fo tance, oblique mean is observe
773 274 275 276 2775 2776 2775 2880 2880 2880 2880 2880 2880 2880 288	400 400 200	1 28 1 9 30 1 23 1 29 30				,06552 ,08173 ,11656 ,06777		5,11908 8,08614 9,65656 5,20631		5,2 6,1	2,3 7,8 23,2	\$6,65 00,05 86.35 81,60 83,20 84,84	inflrur level o
882 883 884	615,106 200 300 200	34 30	4 18			,01010 ,00021 ,00274		1,59125	c,349c8	1 C,2	102,4	85,50	Con 5 chair
87 888	300 400 400 400	2 1 1 57 1 12 47				,18582 ,23164 ,08772 ,03740	2	10,557c6 13,61c96 8,376g6 5,46852		20,5	9,8 1,3 9.9 8,1	76,56 85,00 86,70 70,64	Cour
899 900 all	39332,82212	40 21 30	3 1		101	,027c8 ,00586	59,30097	4,65112 1,8-622	241,34419	140,0	5,2	86,07 88 40	Cor Decem

Apparent length of the base measured and computed 393,3282212 chains equal
Sum of all the deductions in column 5,
Sum of the deductions in column 6,
Then if the chain was compared with the brass standard, and measured 100 feet at the temperature of 62° and the man temperature of measurement being 83,5 very no

correction for the chain's expansion will be=\83.5-629 \times.0073 \times 39332,822 feet nearly, which add

Therefore the true length of the base in the temperature of 62° will be Which being reduced to the level of the sea, by allowing the height above Madras to be 2901 feet, will be

We will first suppose, that, when a steel chain is measured off, in any given temperature, by the standard brasses, there is a coincidence of measure; that is, that 100 feet of brass. And this temperature, coincidence and the temperature, coincidence of measures, that is, that 100 feet of brass. And this temperature, coincidence of measures, that is, that 100 feet of brass.

N. Easterly, making an angle with the meridian 0° 57′ 7″. The first column contains the number of hypothenuses, or measured distances. The Second, the length of each in feet. The Third, the angles of elevation or depression which each hypothenuse makes with the horizon. The Fourth, the horizontal oblique angles. The Fifth, the quantities to be subtracted from the respective hypothenuses to reduce them to the horizon. The Sixth, the quantities to be subtracted from the oblique (horizontal) direction to reduce them to the horizontal distance in the line. The Seventh, the perpendicular ascents and descents to each hypothenuse. The Eighth, the commencement, in inches, of every hypothenuse above or below the termination of the one preceding; and the Ninth contains the mean temperature during the respective measurements.

No. of	Longth of each in Feet.	Angles of.		Oblique hor, angles with the line.		Deductions	Deductions	Perpendicular.		Commencement from the laft.		Mean of five Thermo-	REMARKS.
the Hyp.		Elevat.	Depr.	To the left.	To the right.	from each Hypothenuse	from oblique Directions.	Alcents.	Defcents.	Above Inches.	Below Inches.	meters.	
1 2 3 4 56	1100 1100 500 400 100	0 1 "	1 0 30 0 38 30			,17050 ,c6900		Feet.	Feet. 19,35761 12,31886	6,0 14,3 10,0	5, 11,2	85,10 80,63 81,26 80,60 85,20 81,	Commenced on the 1412 October 1800.
7 8 9 10 11 12 13	900 500 300 400 300 312,422 300 200	0 3 40	57 30 1 10 1 13 2 10			,coc40 ,c70c0 ,c6219 ,c9020 ,21447		,09599	8,17229 6,10824 8,49328 11,34195	1,4	7,3 8,2 6,2 5,0 11,1	81,93 79,98 82,20 79,22 75,66 79,95 79,96 84,80 81,05	Computed from a mea- fured bale of 200 feet—this was done to avoid a deepgully and fome rocky ground.
15 16 17 18 19 20 21 29	400 500 400 300 1000 400 400 400 600	2 34 50 1 36 1 23 33	22 1 11 30 1 14 1 45			,41c91 ,19475 ,11636 ,01383 ,00820 ,08646 ,c9768		18,12582 13,96080 9,65656 2,87976	2,55980 8,31882 8,60964 18,32310	3,75	6,9 2,0 10,4 9,2 3,6 7,8 10,4 6,2	83,72 81,12 87,80 85,11 85,20 85,37 89,	The 2d chain of this hypothenuse extended across the Bangalore road.
24 25 26 27 28 29 30	500 200 300 200 100 400 300 400 200	0 10 1 40 2 4 1 49 54	1 40 0 29 55 1 19			,21150 ,coc84 ,12690 ,13010 ,05026 ,04936 ,01663 ,05308 ,05280		0,58178 8,72541 7,21246 3,17015 6,28292	2,53071 6,51560 4,59562	8 <sub>2</sub> 5	2,1 6 5,6 0,0 5:3 3,0 8,2 13.1 4,6	86,74 85,75 79,83 88,40 80,60 80,70 87,00 81,05 75,40	Computed from a horizontal base of 5 chains. The
31 32 33 34 35 56 37 38 39	1308,08564 500 200 300 300 200	1 32 20 44	41 1 7 30			,18034 ,01641 ,02133 ,03855 ,16418		13,42772 2,65974	3,577 <sup>8</sup> 3 3,83735	102.50 80	5,4 16,9 9,5 7,8	75,40 71,62 80,50 80,63 84,90 81,45	angles were taken with the greateft care by the circular inftrument—this was necef- fary to avoid a small tank which was dry when the
39 40 41 42 43 44 45	400 300 900 500 800 800 800		31 41 48 50	CC-0. G	urukul Kangri	,02035 ,05688	ridwar Collect	on. Digitized by	11,45943 5,28572 4,50870 9,54088	JSA 10,1	7,8 7,6 1c,2 8,7	79,52 87,36 83,24 79,06 84,79 91,11 89,31	ground was first inspected.

THE coffers were then put upon the pickets, and having all their bottoms of the same thickness, they therefore formed the plane in which the chain was to be extended.

When any hypothenuse was terminated, a line, with a plummet, was let fall from the arrow upon the feather edge of the chain; and the point on the ground was marked, which was defined by the point of the plummet, (for a brass register head was there unnecessary,) and the height of that extremity of the chain, from the ground, was carefully taken. The new hypothenuse, therefore, commenced from that same point, and the arrow at the beginning of the next chain was made to coincide with a plumb line falling to the said point. And the height also of that end of the chain, from the ground, was taken; by which means, the ascent or descent of the commencement of the new hypothenuse was determined.

When the chain was extended in the coffers, it was fixed at one end to the drawing post, and from the other an 8½ inch shell was suspended. The leading register head was then brought by the finger screw, so that some division might correspond with the arrow. Five thermometers were then put into the coffers, (one into each,) and there remained for some minutes, a cloth at the same time covering them. They were then taken out, and the mean temperature marked down. This was done to every chain, and a mean of each hypothenuse was afterwards taken, and the result served to determine the equation arising from expansion and contraction, for correcting the whole apparent length of the base.

EVERY thing having been prepared, the measurement commenced on the 14th October, and was completed on the 10th December: the particulars thereof will appear in the following table.

05-

Observations for the Latitude of the southern extremity of the Base, and the Meridian at that point.

For the meridian, I observed the angle which the line made with the polar star when at its greatest western elongation; and computed its azimuth, at that time, from having the latitude of the place, and the apparent polar distance given—at that season of the year a double azimuth could not be taken in the night time, and my telescope had not sufficient powers to observe the star in the day time.

THE

Now, since the expansion of brass is different from that of steel; it follows, that when the measurement is made in a higher or lower temperature than that in which the steel and brass coincided, there will be an equation; which must be applied to the apparent measure of the chain, in order to bring it to the brass measure. I shall call this higher or lower temperature, the temperature of measurement.

After the steel chain has been reduced to brass measure, it may be found necessary to reduce the brass standard itself, to the space it would have measured, or extended over, in a higher or lower temperature. Let that be called the standard temperature. Now upon a slight examination of these, it appears that they will resolve them-

selves into three cases.

CASE 1st. When the standard temperature and the temperature of

measurement are both above the temperature of coincidence.

Let the brass standard and steel chain coincide, when the thermometer is at  $54^{\circ}$ ; and let a space be measured by the chain at the temperature of n degrees, so that  $n-54^{\circ}$  shall express the number of degrees above the temperature of coincidence, when the measurement is made. Now, the length of the chain at  $54^{\circ}$  was precisely a given number of feet, (we will suppose 100 feet,) by the brass scale. And since ,00763 inches is the expansion of 100 feet of steel for one degree of the thermometer, it follows, that when the chain is applied at the temperature of  $n^{\circ}$  it will extend over a space on the ground equal to

 $\frac{n-54^{\circ} \times ,00763}{12}$  feet, if measured by the brass scale in the tem-

perature of 54°.

So far as to the temperature of 54° when the brass and steel coincide; that is, when 100 feet of brass coincide with 100 feet of steel at that degree of temperature. But suppose it should be thought necessary to change the standard temperature to n°, the temperature of coincidence being still at 54°:—that is to say, let the space above-mentioned be measured by the brass standard at the same temperature n° as when the chain

THE observations were made on the 3d, 14th, and 21st of December, at which times the apparent azimuths of the star were 1°. 47'. 42". 1°. 47', 40+", and 1º. 47'. 40-", leaving out the decimals of the seconds; and the mean of the angles made with the line and the star at those times was 2º. 45'. 50", 2º. 45'. 20", and 2°. 45'; which, compared with the apparent azimuth, will give a mean of 57'. 40" nearly N. Easterly, which is the angle made by the line with the meridian.

TT

chain was extended over that space. Then, if the expansion of brass and steel had been the same, the space which measured

 $\frac{100 + \frac{12}{12}}{12}$  feet by the brass, when the thermometer stood

at 54°, will now measure 
$$100 + \frac{n-54^{\circ} \times ,00763}{12} = \frac{n-54^{\circ} \times ,00763}{12}$$
 or 100 feet; by reason of the brass having increased  $\frac{n-54^{\circ} \times ,00763}{12}$  feet,

100 feet; by reason of the brass having increased 
$$\frac{n-54^{\circ} \times .00763}{12}$$
 feet,

in 100 feet. But since 100 feet of brass expands, 01237 inches for one degree of the thermometer, the space over which the steel chain extended at no will measure by the brass standard

$$100+\frac{\overline{n-54}^{\circ}\times,00763}{12}$$
  $\frac{\overline{n-54}^{\circ}\times,01237}{12}$  feet: and, from a parity of

reasoning, if no be not the temperature in which the space is to be measured by the brass standard, but so which is therefore the standard temperature. Then the measurement reduced to that temperature will

give 
$$100 + \frac{n-54^{\circ} \times ,00763}{12}$$
  $\frac{s-54^{\circ} \times ,01237}{12}$  feet, if measured at so of temperature.

Case 2d. When the standard temperature and the temperature of measurement are both below the temperature of coincidence.

First, suppose the chain to be extended on the ground when the

thermometer is at no so that 54-no shall express the number of degrees below the temperature of coincidence. Then, if that space be measured by the brass standard at 54° of temperature, it will be equal IT will appear, that there is a great difference in the above observed angles of the star with the N. end

equal  $100 - \frac{54 - n^{\circ} \times ,00763}{12}$  feet; for the steel being contracted will evidently extend over a shorter space than it did at 54° by the quantity  $\frac{54 - n^{\circ} \times ,00763}{12}$  feet.

Next, suppose the brass standard to be reduced to  $n^{\circ}$  or  $54-n^{\circ}$  below the temperature of coincidence. Then, had the expansion of brass and steel been the same, the space  $100 - \frac{54-n^{\circ} \times ,00763}{12}$  feet, would now

increase to 100 —  $\frac{54-n^{\circ} \times ,00763}{12} + \frac{54-n^{\circ} \times ,00763}{12}$  equal 100 feet by

the brass scale, since that scale has contracted  $\frac{54-\pi^{\circ} \times .00763}{12}$  feet in 100 feet.

But 100 feet of brass will have contracted  $\frac{54-n^{\circ} \times ,01237}{12}$  feet, and therefore the space in brass measure will be expressed by 100 –  $\frac{54-n^{\circ} \times ,00763}{54-n^{\circ} \times ,00763}$   $\frac{54-n^{\circ} \times ,01237}{54-n^{\circ} \times ,01237}$   $\frac{54-n^{\circ} \times ,01237}{54-n^{\circ} \times ,01237}$ 

feet, when the standard temperature is no. But if the standard temperature be so then the space will measure

100 + 54-s<sup>o</sup> × ,01237-54-n<sup>o</sup> × ,00763 feet, when measured by the brass scale at s<sup>o</sup> of temperature,

CASE 3d. Let the temperature of coincidence be between the standard temperature and the temperature of measurement.

1. Let the temperature of coincidence be  $54^{\circ}$  as before, and let the standard temperature be below  $54^{\circ}$ , so that  $54-s^{\circ}$  shall express the number of degrees below 54 for the reduction, and let  $n^{\circ}$  be above 54, so that  $n-54^{\circ}$  expresses the excess of the temperature of measurement above that of coincidence, and  $n-s^{\circ}$  the excess of the temperature of measurement above the standard temperature.

end of the base; but that arose from the unfavourable weather in the mornings, at which time the telescope

Now, by Case 1st, the space over which the chain extends on the ground will be  $100 + \frac{n-54^{\circ} \times ,00763}{12}$  feet, compared with the brass scale at  $54^{\circ}$ . Had the contraction of brass been the same as that of steel,  $100 + \frac{n-s^{\circ} \times ,00763}{12}$  feet, would be the measure, by the brass scale at  $54-s^{\circ}$  below the temperature of coincidence. But it has contracted more by  $54-s^{\circ} + \frac{,01237-,00763}{12}$  feet in 100 feet; and consequently the space which the chain extends over, at  $n^{\circ}$  of temperature, will, at  $n-s^{\circ}$  of temperature, measure, by the brass scale,  $n-s^{\circ} \times ,00763 + 54-s^{\circ} \times ,01237-,00763$ 

2. Let the standard temperature be above 54°, and the temperature of measurement below it.

Then, by Case 2d, the space over which the chain extends, is =  $100 - \frac{54 - n^{\circ} \times .00763}{12}$  feet, measured by the brass scale at 54°.—And

feet would have been the measure at  $s^{\circ}$  by the brass, had the expansion of steel and brass been equal. But the expansion of brass is more by  $s-54^{\circ}+,01237-,00763$  feet. And therefore, if the space over which the steel chain extended, when the temperature was  $54-n^{\circ}$  below the temperature of coincidence, be measured by the brass standard, when the temperature is  $s-54^{\circ}$  above that of coincidence, the value of that space, in brass measure, will be 100-

(s-n° ×,00763+s-54° ×,0123-0076).

Hence, universally, if so and no denote as above, and to temperature of coincidence, and S = the space on the ground over which the steel

telescope of the circular instrument was directed to the flag staff.—It was intended to determine this angle, by having a blue light at the opposite end of the base, at the time that the star was at its greatest elongation; but, unfortunately, the weather became so unfavourable, that the star never made its appearance, for upwards of a fortnight—and as I was ready to move during all that time, I therefore determined to remain no longer at that station, but wait the event of more settled weather, which probably would happen before I had extended my operations very far, either to the eastward or westward of Bangalore. I therefore prepared to take angles at the most suitable places, and proceed to lay down the positions of the principal objects within the vicinity of Bangalore.

The latitude of the South end of the base was obtained some time after, by observing, at a station North of Bangalore, which, with the two extremities of the base, formed a triangle. Those observations were made with the zenith sector on the 19th, 20th, and 21st of January, by taking the zenith distance of the star Aldebaran, whose declination was

corrected

chain (whose length is 100 feet at to of temperature) extends when the thermometer is at no.—Then the formulæ for the different cases will be

If the chain should measure +or — any quantity (q) at the temperature to from wear &c. then put 100+q in place of 100 in each

corrected for precession, nutation, and aberration, for those days—and, in order to correct the error of collimation of the telescope, the instrument was turned upon its vertical axis on the 21st, and the zenith distance taken on the opposite part of the arc.

—The latitude determined by the observation made on the 19th was 13°. 00′. 59,35″, and by that on the 20th, 13°. 00′. 58,72″. N. On the 21st, when the sector was turned, the latitude was observed 15°.00′ 22,6″, which will therefore give the mean 13°.00′. 40,6″ N. From these it will appear that the error of collimation was 18,095″.

The latitude of that station being obtained, and also its distance from the south end of the base;—from knowing the angle which that distance made with the meridian, the distance on the meridian, between the station, and the point where a line falling from the southern extremity would cut it at right angles, was easily had, and the difference of latitude of the station and that point was computed, by allowing 60191 fathoms to the degree in latitude 15°.—And that gave 12°. 54′. 6,6″ for the latitude of the point of intersection on the meridian of the station.

THE perpendicular, falling from the south end of the base on the meridian, was then converted into minutes and seconds, by allowing 60957 fathoms (b) for the degree on a great circle perpendicular to the meridian, and from that and the co-latitude of the point of intersection, the latitude of the southern extremity of the base was determined to be 12°.

54'

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<sup>(</sup>b) These measures have been determined by computing on the ellipsoid given by Col. Williams and Capt. Mudge, as resulting from their measurement of a degree perpendicular to the meridian in latitude 50° 41' N. and of a degree on the meridian in the fame latitude, as obtained from the measured are between Greenwich and Paris.—The ratio of the diameters of that ellipsoid is nearly as 230 to 23, 155.—The principles on which these computations are founded, with the most useful propositions relative to the ellipsoid, will be given hereafter, when the figure of the earth becomes the subject of investigation.

54'. 6,4". In these distances, I did not compute on the chords of the arcs, because the instrument I had in use was not sufficient for that purpose.

Experiments for determining the Expansion of the Chain.

In making allowance for the expansion of the chain, in the annexed table, it will appear that I have differed both from General Roy and Colonel Williams. It may therefore be necessary to give the following account of the experiments which were made for ascertaining that allowance,—which experiments were made by the chain itself, observing its length at sun-rise and at one o'clock, between which hours the base was generally measured.

AFTER the chain was extended in the coffers, in the manner formerly mentioned, it was carefully adjusted, at each end, to some particular marks on the register heads, about the hours of sun-rise. The finger screw of one of these brass sliders had been previously graduated into eight equal parts, on its circumference, which were counted, on its being turned, by another mark on the end of the slider, touching that part of the circumference. finger screw was observed to make 26 revolutions in one inch, so that one of the divisions, on the circumference, was equal = part of an inch. Things being thus adjusted, the experiments were made in the following order, and the mean temperature taken from three of the best thermometers I had, which remained the whole time in the coffers, with the chain; and these coffers were covered, in the same manner as they had been during the operations of the measurement.

DECEMBER 11th, at one P. M. the temperature

was 95°.

DECEMBER 12th, at seven A.M. the mean tem-CC-0. Gurukul Kangri University Haridwar Collection. Digitized by S3 Foundation USAPerature perature was 58°, therefore 37° is the difference, or fall of the thermometer, since the preceding day.

The chain had contracted 58 divisions on the micrometer screw, each of which being equal  $\frac{1}{2.08}$  inches, therefore the whole expansion of the chain was  $\frac{58}{2.08}$  = ,27884 inches—and this divided by 37° gives ,00721 inches, the expansion of the chain due to one degree of the thermometer.

DECEMBER 13th, at half past six A. M. the mean of three thermometers was 56° which was 39° decrease of temperature since the preceding day at one o'clock P. M.—The chain had contracted 60 divisions—therefore  $\frac{60}{208}$  divided by  $39^{\circ} = .007896$ 

inches.

At one P. M. the same day, the temperature was 97°, and consequently the increase since morning was 41°. The chain had expanded 63 divisions, hence  $\frac{63}{208}$  divided by 41° gives ,0079853 inches.

DECEMBER 15th.—At seven A. M. the temperature was 62°, and at one P. M. 93°—and therefore the increase since morning was 31°. The chain had expanded 46 divisions, therefore 45 divided by

 $31^{\circ} = .00713$  inches.

DECEMBER 16th, at half past six A.M. the temperature was 51°, 2 which was 41°, 8 below the preceding day at one o'clock P.M. The chain had contracted 59 divisions, which proceeding as before, gives, 006786 inches.

DECEMBER 17th, at half past six A. M. the temperature was 56°, and at one P. M. it was 92°—whose difference is 36°.—The chain had 58 divi-

sions, which will give ,00761 inches.

THE mean of all these being ,007253 inches, I have therefore made the expansion of the chain due to 1° of temperature above 62° to be ,0073 inches.

#### XI.

## On the Origin and Peculiar Teners of CERTAIN MUHAMMEDAN SECTS.

By H. T. COLEBROOKE, Esq.

HE Bohrahs, numerous in the provinces of the Indian peninsula, but found also in most of the great cities of Hindustán, are conspicuous by their peculiar customs; such, for example, as that of wearing at their orisons an appropriate dress, which they daily wash with their own hands. Their disposition for trade to the exclusion of every other mode of livelihood, and the government of their tribe by a hierarchy, are further peculiarities, which have rendered them an object of inquiry, as a singular sect.

Researches made by myself, among others, were long unsuccessful. My informers confounded this tribe with the Ismáiliyahs, with the Alilahiyahs, and even with the unchaste sect of Cherágh-cush. Concerning their origin, the information received was equally erroneous with that regarding their tenets. But at length a learned Sayyad referred me to the Mejálisu'lmúminin composed by Nurullah of Shúster, a zealous Shiáh, who suffered for his religious opinions in the reign of Jeha'ngi'r. In the passage, which will be forthwith cited from that work, the Bóhrahs are described by the author, as natives of Gujrát converted to the Muhammedan religion about three hundred years before his time, or five centuries ago.

To that passage I shall subjoin extracts from the same work, containing an account of similar tribes, with some of which the Bóhrahs may perhaps have been sometimes confounded. Concerning the Ismá-iliyahs, for whom they have been actually mistaken, it must be remembered, that these form a sect of Shiâhs, who take their distinctive appellation

Ismáír, eldest son and nominated successor of Imám JAFER, surnamed Sádik. They consider ISMAIL as the true heir of the Imamet, and do not acknowledge the legal succession of his brother Mu's A and of the five last Imams. This sect flourished under the Egyptian dynasty of Khalifs founded by Mu-HAMMED MAHADÍ, who claimed descent from the Imám Ismaíl himself. It was also conspicuous under a dynasty of princes of this sect, the first of whom, HASAN SABAH, founded a principality in Irák\*. The sect may still exist in Syria, but it does not seem to be at present known in the Indian portion of Asia.

THE Aliilahiyahs, on the contrary, are become numerous in India. This sect is mentioned by the author of the Dabistán, as prevalent in his time, only at Uzbil, or Azbál, in the mountainous tractnear Khata. It now prevails, according to information which I have received, in a part of the dominions of NAWA'B NIZA'MU'L MULC. The singular tenets of this heretical sect are thus stated by Mon-

sen Fa'ni'. "The Ali-ilahiyahs hold, that celestial spirits, which cannot otherwise be known to mankind, have frequently appeared in palpable shapes. GOD himself has been manifested in the human form, but especially in the person of ALI MURTEZA', whose image, being that of Alí Ullah, or All' GOD, these sectaries deem it lawful to worship. They believe in the metempsychosis; and, like others who maintain that doctrine, abstain from fleshmeat. They imagine, that Ali Multeza',

when he quitted this earth, returned to the sun,

<sup>\*</sup> See the Dabistan of Mulla Mousen Fa'ni'; and D'HERBE-LOT's Bibliotheque Orientale. If the industrious Bobrahs and the temorseless "assassins" had really arisen out of the same sect, it would be a new fact in the history of the human mind.

which is the same with himself; and hence they call the sun Âli' Ullah. This sect does not admit the authenticity of the Korán, as it is now extant: some pretending, that it is a forgery of

ABUBECR'S, OMAR'S and OTHMA'N'S; others condemning it, simply because it was edited by the last mentioned Khalif. The members of this sect appear to vary in regard to some points of doctrine; but the leading and universal tenet of this sect is, that, in every age of the world, GOD is manifested in the persons of prophets and of saints; for instance, he

was ADAM, and afterwards AHMED and ALI': and in like manner these sectaries believe in the transmigration of GOD into the persons of the Imams. Some of them affirm, that the manifestation of the

divine being, in this age of the world, was Ali' Ullah; and after him, his glorious posterity: and they consider Muhammed as a prophet sent by

ALI' ULLAH. When GOD, say they, perceived MUHAMMED's insufficiency, he himself assumed the human form for the purpose of assisting the prophet\*."

It does not appear from any satisfactory information, that the Bohrahs agree with either of these

sects, in deifying Ali', or in contesting the legal succession of the six last *Imáms*. On the contrary, the tribe is acknowledged to consist of orthodox Sunnis, and of true Shiâhs; but mostly of the last mentioned sect. These and other known circumstances coiroborate the following account of that tribe as given by Núrullah of Shúster, in the work before mentioned.

"THE Bóhrahs are a tribe of the faithful, which is settled chiefly at Ahmedábád and its environs. Their salvation in the bosom of religion took place about

<sup>\*</sup> See the Dabistán, from which this account is abstracted.

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about three hundred years ago, at the call of a virtuous and learned man, whose name was MULLAH

All', and whose tomb is still seen at the city of

Cambayat.

"THE conversion of this people was thus conducted by him: As the inhabitants of Gujrát were pagans, and were guided by an aged priest, a recreant, in whom they had a great confidence, and whose disciples they were; the missionary judged it expedient, first to offer himself as a pupil to the priest; and after convincing him by irrefragable proofs, and making him participate in the declaration of faith, then to undertake the conversion of He accordingly passed some years in attendance on that priest, learnt his language, studied his sciences, and became conversant with his books. By degrees he opened the articles of the faith to the enlightened priest, and persuaded him to become Muslemán. Some of his people changed their religion in concert with their old instructor. The circumstance of the priest's conversion being made known to the principal minister of the king of that n country, he visited the priest, adopted habits of obedience towards him, and became a Muslem. But for a long time, the minister, the priest, and the rest of the converts, dissembled their faith, and sought to keep it concealed, through dread of the king.

version reached the monarch. One day he repaired to his house, and, finding him in the humble posture of prayer, was incensed against him. The minister knew the motive of the king's visit, and perceived that his anger arose from the suspicion that he was reciting prayers and performing adoration. With presence of mind, inspired by divine providence, he immediately pretended that his prostrations were occasioned by the sight of a serpent, which appeared in the corner of the room, and against which he was

Z 2 employing

employing incantations. The king cast his eyes towards the corner of the apartment, and it so happened that there he saw a serpent; the minister's excuse appeared credible, and the king's suspicions were lulled.

"AFTER a time, the king himself secretly became a convert to the Muslemán faith; but dissembled the state of his mind, for reasons of state. Yet, at the point of death, he ordered, by his will, that his corpse should not be burnt according to the customs

of the pagans.

"Subsequently to his decease, when Sulta'n Zefer, one of the trusty nobles of Sultán Fi'ru'z Shah, sovereign of Déhlí, conquered the province of Gujrát; some learned men, who accompanied him, used arguments to make the people embrace the faith, according to the doctrines of such as revere the traditions\*. Hence it happened, that some of the tribe of Bóhrahs became members of the sect of the Sunnet.

"THE party which retains the Imamiyeh tenets, comprehends nearly two thousand families. They always have a pions learned man amongst them, who expounds cases of law according to the doctrines of the Imamiychs. Most of them subsist by commerce and mechanical trades; as is indicated by the name of Bohrah, which signifies merchant, in the dialect of Gujrát. They transmit the fifth part of their gains to the Sayyads of Medineh; and pay their regular eleemosynary contributions to the chief of their learned, who distributes the alms among the poor of the sect. These people, great and small, are honest, pious, and temperate. They always suffer much persecution (for the crime of bearing affection towards the holy family) from the wicked murderers t, who are invested with public authority; and they are ever involved in the difficulties of concealment.

" THE

<sup>\*</sup> The Sunnis, or orthodox sect.

"THE S'adikiyahs are a tribe of the faithful in Hindustán; pious men, and disciples of SAYYAD CABI'RU'DDI'N, who derived his descent from ISMAI'L, son of IMA'M JAFER. This tribe is denominated S'adikiyahs, by reason of the sincere. [s'adik] call of that Sayyad. Although that appellation have, according to received notions, a seeming relation to ABU'BECR, whose partisans give him this title; yet it is probable that the sect assumed that appellation for the sake of concealment. However, no advantage ever accrues to them from it. On the contrary, the arrogant inhabitants of Hind, who are Hinduis, being retainers of the son of the impious HIND\*, have discovered their attachment to the sect of Shiahs, and have revived against them the calumnies which five hundred years before they broached against the Ismailiyahs. They maliciously charge them with impiety: such indeed is their antient practice. They violate justice, and labour to extirpate this harmless tribe. In short, they cast the stone of calumny on the roof of the name and reputation of this wretched people, and have no fear of GOD, nor awe of his Prophet †.

"In short, nearly thirty thousand persons of this sect are settled in provinces of Hindustán, such as Multán, Láhór, Déhlí, and Gujrát. Most of them subsist by commerce. They pay the fifth part of their gains to the descendants of Savyad Cabi'r, who are their priests: and both preceptor and pupil, priests and laymen, all are zealous Shíáhs. GOD avert evil from them, and make the wiles of their

foes recoil!

"THE Házárchs of Cábul are an innumerable tribe, who reside in Cábul, Ghaznín, and Kand'har.
Z 3 Many

\* Meaning HINDA' the mother of MAVIYEH.

<sup>+</sup> The author proceeds in a strain of invective against the Sunnis; especially against Mulla Abdullah of Lábor, who bore the title of the Makhdu'mu'lmulc. This, being superfluous, is here omitted.

Many of them are Shiahs, and adherents of the holy family. At present, among the chiefs of the Shiahs, is Mirza Sha'dma'n, with whom the faithful are well pleased, and of whose incursions the \* Kharejis of Cabul and Ghaznin bitterly complain.

"THE Baloch of Sind; many of these are devoted Shiahs. They call themselves, and are called by all the faithful, Ali's friends. Sayyad Ra'ju' of Bokhará exerted himself in the guidance of this tribe; his descendants remain among them, and are occupied with the concerns of the sect."

<sup>\*</sup> The word is here used as a term of reproach; for its origin, as the appellation of a sect, see D'HERBELOT'S Bibliotheque Orientale.

A summary Account of the Life and Writings of Avyar, a Tamul Female Philosopher.

#### BY THE REVEREND DR. JOHN.

THE Malabars, or more properly the Tamuls, boast of having produced the celebrated AVYAR, one of their antient moral philosophers.

This Lady's writings contain good general ideas

grounded in the science of morality.

SHE was a Polytheist, and invokes the God Sup-PIRAMANIEN, OF PULLEYAR, the Son of SIVEN\*, who is held by the Hindoos to be the protector of Learning and Science, as MERCURY was amongst the Greeks.

HER origin and birth, as well as the æra in which

she flourished, are lost in fable.

Some pretend she was a goddess, one of BRIMHA's wives, and had been guilty of a trespass, for which she had been driven from heaven to earth, where she was condemned to remain till she had performed sufficient atonement for her sin, by severe and long repentance. On earth she composed her moral writings, for the benefit of mankind, and particularly for youth. On account of her divine origin, she is therefore highly respected.

Z 4 OTHERS

<sup>\*</sup> This appears to be an oversight of the learned author. SOOPRA-MANIEN is the Hindoo God of war, called also Ca'rtice'ra (Karte-Keya and Scanda (compare As. Researches, Vol. I. p. 252, with Sonnerat's Voyage, Vol. I. p. 325, Cctavo edition.) And Polle'ar, or Ganesa, who is generally invoked at the commencement of every undertaking, is compared by Sir William Jones to the Roman Janus. He is said to be the eldest, and the former the second son of Seeva. The Kandapranam, quoted below, is probably the Scánda-purána, as the name is written by Capt. Wilford. (As. Res. Vol. IV. p. 363.) Compare As. Res. Vol. I. p. 227, with Sonnerat's Travels, Vol. 1. p. 323.

OTHERS take her to be one of the seven wise or moral philosophers, in whom the *Tamuls* glory as well as the antient Greeks, and with more reason, as they have four ladies in the number, and only three men. Their wonderful birth is related in the *Kandapranam*, of which I will give only a short extract.

THE female philosophers are AVYAR, UPPAY, VALLIE and URUVAY; and the male, the famous TIRUVALLUWER (whose writings contain good and elegant moral verses) ADIGAMAN and KAVVILER.

ALL these seven wise persons belonged to the same family, were of the same parents, but were educated by different charitable guardians. One in the royal palace by a king, the other in the hut of a basket-maker, another by a Bramin, another even by an outcast, and so forth, but at last they all turned out Sages; their birth was not less wonderful. Their fa-

ther was Perali, and their grandfather Vedamoli, both great saints and philosophers. The latter saw, once in the night, a bright star falling down, in a village inhabited by outcasts, upon a house wherein a girl was just born. By his prophetic power, he discovered that this girl would be one day married to his son Perali, who was then a boy of twelve years of age, which made him very uneasy.

He communicated his sorrow to his fellow Bramins, but in general terms only; he told them, that the girl born last night in the village of outcasts, under such wonderful circumstances, would entail numberless misfortunes on the Bramin cast in general; but he carefully concealed whatever had relation to his own son, since its disclosure would have

excluded him from the cast.

They were all struck with terror at this sad prophecy, and they deliberated as to the disposal of the infant. The father was called, and informed of the unlucky destiny interwoven with his child, and he was asked which ought to suffer? his child, or the revered

revered cast of Bramins? The poor man answered very submissively; I deliver up my child entirely to you; do with her what you think proper. The child was brought, and her death was unanimously agreed

upon. VEDAMOLI alone withheld his consent from this barbarous decree, and, instead of the death of the child, proposed its removal to a distant place,

where it might be left to its fate.

They listened to this advice, made a box, laid the child in, and put it in the holy river  $K\bar{a}v\bar{e}ri$ , leaving it to the destiny of the Deity. During this transaction, the old prophet ordered his son to go and look at the child before it was committed to the water, and see if he could discover any distinguished mark on her body. This he did, and returned with the answer, that the child had a very distinct black mark on her thigh. The matter was now dropt, and the old man died soon after, without further explanation on the subject.

When the poor little Nayad was thus floating to a remote country, a Bramin was on a morning at the river, washing and performing his usual devotions and ceremonies. He saw the box coming on, and instead of finding a treasure, which he expected, discovered in it a new-born smiling girl. Having no children, though he had often prayed to obtain that blessing, he imagined his Deity had heard his prayers, and favoured him with this child. He put her to nurse, and provided for her education as his own daughter. Meanwhile young Perall, having been well instructed in philosophy, began, after the example of his late father, to travel as a Njani to visit holy places, and to converse with saints and philosophers for his improvement.

On these travels, he came accidentally to the house of that Bramin who had adopted the girl. The Bramin, finding him to be a fine well-informed youth, grew fond of his character and zeal in learn-

ing,

ing, kept him several years in his house, and at last married him to the girl, who generally was supposed to be his own daughter. After they had lived happy together for a while, she once returned from her oblations, and on her changing her clothes, he was thunderstruck as it were at observing the mark on her thigh, and which discovered her low birth, of which she herself was ignorant. He hid from her his anxiety, but made inquiries at other Bramins, how his father-in-law had got this supposed daughter, and the whole secret was now disclosed to him.

Not choosing to quarrel with his father-in-law, or to appear ungrateful for the kindness and benefits which had been conferred, he was silent; but in a state of much distraction, he went away without taking leave, or saying any thing either to his fatherin-law or to his wife. Both were much alarmed, and the father-in-law thinking his daughter had offended her husband, or was in some way the cause of his displeasure, ordered her to go after him, and either to reconcile and bring him back, or to follow him every where and stay with him. She obeyed, went after him, and used every possible means to persuade him to forgive her if she had offended him, and to be cheerful and return to his father's house. But he was immoveable, answered not a single word, looked much confused, went on hastily, and endeavoured to escape from her sight. However, she followed him wherever he went, and stayed at every Choultry and Shettrum, where he passed the night, hoping that he at last would be prevailed upon to return with her. This continued for five days, and he, tired of her entreaties, in the night, watched when she fell asleep, and then he arose, left her and went away. When she awoke, she looked about, and observed with the greatest concern he was gone, and she herself quite deserted. She did not know what to do. and whither to go, nor did she venture to return to her

her father, whose order she wished strictly to obey, and who might perhaps think she had killed her husband when she came back without him. In this deplorable situation, she wandered about in a neighbouring village, sighing and weeping; this was observed by a Bramin, who asked her the cause of her tears. She informed him of her sad misfortunes, and all the circumstances of her former life, so far as she herself knew them. At this he was greatly affected, bid her come to his house, and promised to take care of her as one of his own daughters. She came, and behaved in such a manner that she ensleared herself to him and to all his other daughters, who treated her as a sister. When this good man died, he divided his great estate in equal portions, and she got so much that she built a Shettrum, wherein she passed her days religiously, and charitably treated the pilgrims and religious travellers who came to lodge there by night, with milk, rice, fruits, and all the victuals she could afford. At the same time she endeavoured to improve by them in knowledge and virtue, asked their advice, requested them to relate to her the circumstances of their lives; and did the same respecting her own life and adventures, her object in this being to pass the time in a mutually agreeable and useful manner. When she had continued so for several years, it happened that her husband came as a pilgrim to the same Shettrum, and was entertained by her in the same kind manner with which she received and entertained the other travellers:—Neither knew the other. When she related also to him her adventures, he was surprised to find his wife in this virtuous person, and that he himself had so great a share in what she related. He admired her virtue and faithfulness, but was greatly confused in his mind, feigning to fall asleep during her discourse, but passed the night in the utmost anxiety. Before sunrise he arose, took his stick and little bundle, and went off without saying a word.

At this she was highly surprised and affected, thinking she might have perhaps offended him, or not attended him well enough, and went therefore after him. asking, "Why do you go away so silent and tronbled in mind?"-Have you taken perhaps any offence at me, or do you suspect my virtue?"-"Tell and forgive, if I have done any thing amiss unknowingly.—You go away just in the same manner as my husband when he left me." At this he could no longer refrain himself, he threw down his earthen vessels and bundle, and exclaimed, "Yes, I am thy husband! and thou art my wife. I have not left thee for any fault on thy side, but only for religious purposes. As thou hast remained so religious and faithful, I receive thee again, if thou wilt strictly do all that I shall order thee." Surprized and rejoiced at this happy discovery, she promised him solemnly to pay him the strictest obedience. From this time he carried her with him on all his travels, and had seven children by her, who became the above-mentioned philosophers. This was indeed no great wonder, as they were born with the gifts of speech and of wisdom. She was ordered by her husband to expose the children in the woods in the open air, leaving them to Providence, without nursing, or taking any farther care of the new-born infants.-This she obeyed implicitly, according to her solemn engagement, which she kept sacredly, though with inward reluctance, and the tender feelings of a mo-When she kissed and took leave of them, each began to speak and to comfort her. - One said to her, the Deity has formed me in thy womb, nourished me, and let me grow in it wonderfully till my birth: Dost thou now doubt that he will not provide for me further? Go, put thy trust in him, and follow his ways. - The second child said at her departure: God provides even for the frog in a stone, shall he do less for me? why art thou anxious for me?be comforted and go. - The third replied to her: God

God has brought me into the world, and determined my fate—is he perhaps dead? He surely will not let me starve-go, dear mother, and fear nothing for my sake. The fourth said: Is not the egg surrounded with a hard shell? and God notwithstanding vivines the little brood in it-will not he feed it after it has broken through the shell? Thus he will also feed me, do not be troubled but cheerful, and be confident in his Providence. fifth said to her: He who has made the finest veins and channels within the plants, in which the nourishing particles of the earth rise and cause their growth, and who has formed the smallest insects so wonderfully in their parts, and gives them food, will not he do the same for me? be not therefore cast down, but be in good spirits and hope in him. The sixth said: Manifold and trifling are the occupations of men, but the great work of the Almighty is to create and to preserve; believe this and comfort thyself. The seventh addressed her thus: God creates such different qualities in the trees and plants, that they produce sour, sweet, bitter, and various delicious fruit He, who is powerful to do this, will also provide st me: why, dost thou weep, my dear mother?—be eheerful and hope in him. Each of these children was soon after found, taken up, nursed, and provided for by people of the highest, middle, and lowest ranks. One by a king, another by a washerman, another by a poet and philosopher, another by a toddyman, another by a basket-maker, another by a bramin, and another by an outcast. Avyar, of whose writings I shall give some account, had the fate to be educated by the poet. The time in which she lived, is placed in the age when the three famous kings, SHOLEN, SHERON, and PANDIEN lived, which falls about the 9th century of the Christian æra.

Amongst other sciences, she was well acquainted with chemistry, and became an adept, possessing the power of making gold, the best medicine, and

the famous calpam, which preserves life to a great age, and by the virtue of which she lived 240 years. From this fabulous narration, which is differently represented in several Tamul antient writings, I will proceed to her performances, which are the little moral Treatises Atisūdi, Konnewenden, Mudurci. Nadwali, and Kalvi-oluckam. These are introduced in the Tamul Schools, and read by the children amongst the first books which they learn to read. But neither the children understand it, nor can hardly any master comprehend each of the sentences they contain, as some are composed of such high and abstruse words, which admit more than one sense. and some say that each sentence could be interpreted in five different ways. Some appear to me clear enough, and admitting only one interpretation; but some are so dark, and those with whom I have consulted, vary so much amongst themselves, that I found it difficult to decide between their interpretations, and I choose therefore that which gave the best ense, and according to that manuscript which I wee jess, for there are also different manuscripts.

of the Tamul Alphabet; each accordingly begins with a letter, therefore we may call it, The Golden

Alphabet of the Tamuls.

I SHALL now give first a translation of the Atisūdi, and shall continue to translate the rest, if this meets with a favourable acceptance from the friends of antient Indian Learning.

TRANSLATION OF THE ATISUDI, BY AVYAR.

Glory and Honour be to the divine son of him, who is crowned with the flowers\* of the Ati (Bauhinia tomentosa.)

Charity be thy pleasure. Be not passionate.

Be

SHIVEN is represented with this flower round his head, and PULLEYAR OF VICKINESUREN is his first Son who is here implored.

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Be not a miser in giving. Hinder none in charity. Do not manifest thy secrets. Lose not thy courage. Exercise thyself in cyphering and writing. To live on alms is shameful. Give, and then eat. Converse only with the peaceful. Never cease to improve in learning. Do not speak what is dishonest. Do not raise the price of victuals. Do not say more than thou hast seen. Take care of what is most dear. Bathe on each Saturday. Speak what is agreeable. Build not too large a house. Know first one's character before thou art confident. Honour thy father and mother. Do not forget benefits received. Sow in due time. Tillage gives the best livelihood. Do not walk about melancholy. Do not play with snakes. Bed thyself on cotton, (soft.) Do not speak craftily. Do not flatter. Learn whilst thou art young. Do not forget what is best for thy body. Avoid affectation. Forget offence. To protect is noble. Seek a constant happiness. Avoid what is low. Keep strongly what is good. Do not part with thy friend. Do not hurt any body. Hear and improve. Do not use thy hands to do mischief.

Do not desire stolen goods. Be not slothful in thy actions. Keep strictly to the laws of the country. Keep company with the virtuous. Be not a scoffer. Do not act against the custom of the country. Make not others blush by thy speaking. Do not love gaming. What thou dost, do with propriety. Consider the place where thou goest. Do not walk about as a spy. Do not speak too much. Do not walk about like a dreamer. Converse with those who are polite. Endeavour to be settled at a fixed place. Dedicate thyself to TIRUMAL, VISHTNOO. Abhor what is bad. Indulge not thy distress. Save rather than destroy. Speak not disrespectfully of the Deity. Be on good terms with thy fellow citizens. Do not mind what women say. Do not despise thy ancestors. Do not pursue a conquered enemy. Be constant in virtue. Have a regard for country people. Remain in thy station. Do not play in water. Do not occupy thyself with trifles. Keep the divine laws. Cultivate what gives the best fruit. Remain constantly in what is just. Do thy business without murmur. Do not speak ill of any body. Do not make thyself sick. Mock not those who have any bodily defect. Go not where a snake may lie. Do not speak of others faults.

Keep far from infection. Endeavour to get a good name. Seek thy livelihood by tilling the ground. Endeavour to get the protection of the great. Avoid being simple. Converse not with the wicked. Be prudent in applying thy money. Come not near to thine adversary. Choose what is the best. Do not come near one who is in a passion. Avoid the company of cholerick men. Converse with those who are meek. Follow the advices of wise men. Go not into the house of the dancing girls. Speak distinctly to be well understood. Abhor bad lusts. Do not speak falsely. Do not like dispute. Love Learning. Endeavour to get a house of your own. Be an honest man. Live peaceful with thy fellow citizen. Do not speak frightfully. Do not evil purposely. Be clean in thy clothes. Go only where there is peace. Love religious meditation.

End of the Moral Sentences given by AVYAR.

# Translation of the Kalwioluckam, or Rules of Learning, by Avyar.

The zealous study of sciences brings increasing

happiness and honour.

From the fifth year of age learning must begin.
The more we learn the more understanding we get.
Spare no expence to learn reading and writing.
Of all treasures, reading and writing are the most valuable.

Learning is really the most durable treasure.

An ignorant man ought to remain dumb.

He who is ignorant of reading and writing, is indeed very poor.

Though thou should'st be very poor, learn at least

something.

Of each matter endeavour to get a clear knowledge. The true end of knowledge is to distinguish good and bad.

He who has learned nothing is a confused prattler. The five syllables Na ma si va yāh contain a great mystery.

He who is without knowledge is like a blind man.

Cyphering must be learned in youth.

Be not the cause of shame to thy relations.

Fly from all that is low.

One accomplished philosopher is hardly to be met with among thousands.

A wise man will never cease to learn.

If all should be lost, what we have learned will never be lost.

He who loves instruction will never perish.

A wise man is like a supporting hand.

He who has attained learning by free self application, excels other philosophers.

Continue always in learning, though thou should'st do it at a great expence.

· Enjoy

Enjoy always the company of wise men.

He who has learned most is most worthy of honour.

What we have learned in youth, is like a writing cut in stone.

Speak the Tamul language not only elegantly, but also distinctly.

False speaking causes infinite quarrels.

He who studies sophistry and deceit, turns out a wicked man.

Science is an ornament wherever we come.

He who converses with the wicked, perishes with them.

Honour a moral master (tutor.)

Speak slowly when thou conversest or teachest.

He who knoweth himself is the wisest.

What thou hast learned teach also to others.

Learn in a proper manner, then thou wilt succeed in being wise.

He who will be a tutor, must first have a well

grounded knowledge.

If one knows what sin is, he becomes wise. The wicked will not accept of instruction.

Do not fix thy attention on vain women.

Well principled wise men approach the perfection of the Divinity.

Begin thy learning in the name of the Divine Son,

(PULLEYAR.)

Endeavour to be respected amongst men by learning.

Let thy learning be thy best friend.

Use the strongest intreaties where thou canst learn something, then wilt thou become a great man in the world.

All perishes except learning.

Though one is of a low birth, learning will make him respected:

Religious wise men enjoy great happiness,

Though thou should'st be one hundred years old, endeavour still to increase in knowledge.

Aa2

Wisdom

Wisdom is firm grounded even on the great ocean. Without wisdom, no where is there ground to stand upon.

Learning also suits old age.

Wise men will never offend any by speaking.

Accept instructions even from men of a low birth.

Do not behave impolitely to men of learning.

Poets require a great deal of learning.

The unwise only flatter others.

Seek honor, and thou shalt get it.

The virtuous are also tutors.

Wisdom is the greatest treasure on earth.

The wiser the more respected. Learning gives great fame.

Learn one thing after the other, but not hastily.

A science in which we take no pleasure is like a bitter medicine.

Speak so that town and country people may understand thee.

Wise men are as good as kings.

Do not deceive even thine own enemy.

Hast thou learned much, communicate it also in an agreeable manner.

In whom is much science, in him is great value.

The present Tamul language does not equal the old \*.

He that knows the sciences of the Antients, is the greatest Philosopher.

Truth is in learning the best.

Wise men are exalted above all other men.

True philosophy does not suffer a man to be put in confusion.

In proportion as one increases in learning, he ought also to increase in virtue.

The most prosperous good is the increase in learning:

This seems to indicate that AVYAR's writings are not of great CC-0. Gurukul Kangq turiyersity Haridwar Collection. Digitized by S3 Foundation USA

He who has no knowledge knows not also the truth.

Wisdom is a treasure valued every where.

A good tutor is beloved over the whole world.

What we gain by science is the best estate, (in-heritance).

Adore the Goddess SARASBADI.

The Vedam (sacred writings) teaches wisdom. Speak and write for the benefit of the public.

He who speaks well and connectedly, is best understood by all.

If knowledge has a proper influence on the mind, it makes us virtuous.

End of the Moral Book KALWIOLUCKAM, composed by AVYAR.

TRANSLATION of the SMALL TAMUL BOOK KONNEIVENDEN, written by the Female Philosopher Avyar.

Continual praise be to the Son of him, who is crowned with the flower of Konnei (Poinciana pulcherrima.)

Mother and Father are the first known Deity.

A good man attendeth religious service.

Without one's own house there is no where a good lodging.

The estate of the wicked will be robbed by the wicked.

Modesty is the best ornament of the fair sex.

If one maketh himself hateful to his fellow creatures, he must entirely perish.

Exercise in writing and cyphering is most useful. Obstinate children are like a poisonous draft.

Though thou art very poor, do what is honest. Adhere chiefly to the only one constantly.

The virtuous will always improve in wisdom and knowledge.

A wicked mouth destroys all wealth.

Seek wealth and money, but without quarrel.

Give in writing what shall stand fast.

A woman must attend herself best.

Even with thy nearest friends speak not impolitely.

Speak friendly even to the poor.

If one will criticise, he will find some fault every where.

Speak not haughtily, though thou art a great man.

To pardon is better than to revenge.

What shall stand firm must have witnesses.

Wisdom

Wisdom is of greater value than ready money. To be on good terms with the King is useful in due time.

A calumnious mouth is a fire in the wood. Good advisers are hated by the world. The best ornament of a family is unanimity. What a senior says, must a junior not despise. If thou cherishest passion, all thy merit is lost. Get first the plough, and then look out for the oxen.

A moral life has a happy influence on the public. Gaming and quarrelling bring misery. Without practical virtue there is no merit. Keep a proper time even for thy bed. Be peaceful, give and be happy.

A merchant must be careful with money. Laziness brings great distress.

To obey the father is better than prayer.

To honour the mother is better than divine service. Seek thy convenient livelihood shouldst thou even do it upon the sea.

Irreconcileableness ends in quarrel. A bad wife is like a fire in the lap.

A slandering wife is like a devil. Without the mercy of the Deity nothing will prosper.

He who squanders away even what he has not gained

justly must perish at last.

In January and February sleep under a good roof. Better eat by hard labour than by humble begging. Speak not what is low even to thy friend. Without a clean conscience there is no good sleep.

If the public is happy, all are safe.

Improvement in wisdom improves our veracity. Seek a house where good water is at hand.

Deliberate first well what thou art going to begin. The reading of good books will improve welfare.

Who Aa4

Who speaks as he thinks is an upright man. What we propose we must pursue with zeal.

We must not speak dishonestly even to a poor man.

Dishonesty will end in infamy.

Laziness brings lamentations.

The fruit will be equal to the seed.

We cannot always drink milk, but must submit to the time.

An honest man does not touch another's property. The name of a true great man will ever remain in

esteem.

Lies are as much as murder and robbery.

What honesty can be expected from low fellows?

Amongst relations civility is often neglected.

A mild temper is a beauty in women.

The meek are the happiest.

Keep thyself from all that is bad.

Wisdom is the direct way to Heaven.

Let thy fellow creatures partake in thy enjoyments.

Where there is no rain, there is no crop.

After lightning follows rain.

Without a good steerer a ship cannot sail.

Who sows in time will have a good crop.

The precepts of the old ought to be cheerfully observed.

Who keeps the proper time to sleep will sleep well.

The plough never will let one suffer want.

Live in matrimony and be moderate.

Who breaks his word loses his interest.

Abhor and fly from lasciviousness.

Gain by deceit will at last be lost.

If Heaven is not favourable nothing will prosper. From impolite people honesty can't be expected.

The words of the haughty are like arrows.

A family ought to support their poor.

A great man must also have a great mind.

A good man will never deceive.

If the Lord is angry, no man can save. All the world shall praise God. Sleep on a safe place.
Without religion is no virtue.

End of the Moral Sentences called Konneivenden, written by Avyar.

### XIII.

Account of the St. Thome Christians on the Coast of Malabar.

BY F. WREDE', Esq.

ALTHOUGH the unexpected discovery of Christians on the Malabar coast, was a matter of the greatest surprize and satisfaction to the first Portuguese adventurers, who were equally enthusiastic to extend their military glory and conquests, as to propagate their religion among the infidels in the remotest quarters of the world; yet their exultation was temporary: for when upon nearer investigation they found that these Christians followed the Doctrine of Nestorius, and acknowledged, instead of the Pope, the Patriarch of that sect, residing in Syria, for their ecclesiastical supreme chief, they appeared in their eyes worse than infidels.

There number must have been very considerable in the beginning of the 16th century, when the Portuguese became first acquainted with them, since they possessed about one hundred and ten churches, in the countries now subject to the Travancore and Cockin rajas: and at this present time, after the manifold persecutions, oppressions, and successive revolutions that have almost depopulated the whole coast, they are computed to amount to no less than

150,000 souls.

THEY are indiscriminately called St. Thomé Christians, Nestorians, Syrians, and sometimes the Malabar Christians of the mountains, by the Portuguese writers of that time, and by the subsequent missionaries from Rome. The most common name given to them by the Hindoos of the country, is that of Nazaranee Mapila, and more frequently Surians or Surianee Mapila.

THE

THE Portuguese were fond of bestowing upon them the name of St. Thomé Christians, though this appellation does not appear to have been, or now to be, very common amongst themselves. It originates probably from the chief who settled the first colony of Syrians on the coast, and who was, according to their tradition, their first bishop and founder of their religion in these countries, and whose name was MAR THOME'. This is corroborated by the curious circumstance of their giving the name of MAR THOME' to every ecclesiastical chief or bishop of theirs, although his real name be JOSEPH or ABRA-HAM, not improbably in compliment to their first bishop and founder, for whom they have still a religious veneration. His arrival and settlement on the coast, may perhaps on a future period be ascertained, with historical accuracy, to have taken place during the violent persecution of the sect of NESTORIUS, under Theodosius the Second, or some time after.

But the bigoted Portuguese missionaries laid hold of this name to renew the story of the arrival and martyrdom of ST THOMAS the Apostle in India, who they pretended had converted a great number of idolaters on the coast of Malabar, and afterwards on the other side of India, as far as Malliapoor, now St. Thomé, where he suffered martyrdom: and as vestiges of Christianity were at the same period discovered in China, they made the same Apostle preach the Gospel in that remote region, and some carried the absurdity so far as to make him pass, some way or other, over to the Brasils\*. The Malabar Christians, they say, had a long time continued without ecclesiastical chiefs, or communication with the rest of the Christian world, till they found means to pro-cure bishops from Mosul in Syria, who unfortunately

<sup>\*</sup> Vide Historia ecclesiæ Malab. eam Diamperitano Synodo, page 345.

nately had been abettors of Nestorius, and that through their means this abominable heresy had been introduced amongst the Christians of Malabar. Though this story is supported by no historical proof whatsoever, and evidently fabricated by some bigoted Roman Catholic writers, to serve the purpose of the times, and to vindicate in some manner the bold doctrine of the see of Rome, that the Gospel had been preached in every corner of the world, at a time when new worlds were discovered, in which it was evident that the Gospel could never have been promulgated, and others in which Christians were found, who would not acknowledge the supremacy of the Pope, and who differed in the most substantial articles of faith from the Roman Catholicks; yet this improbable story has a long time been asserted, and repeated by even Protestant writers, as Baldaeus and VALENTYN.

All traditions and Malabar records agree, that the Syrian Christians, or Nazaranee Mapilas, were known, and had been settled on the Malabar coast,

long before either the Arabs or the Jews.

COMMON tradition, which has even been admitted by the Portuguese writers of the 16th century, probably on the foundation of written records in the Syrian Language, which then existed, and were afterwards all destroyed by the famous Archbishop DE MENEZES at the Synod of Odiamper, mentions MAR THOME' as the first who introduced the Christian religion into Malabar. He is considered by the Nestorians, as their first bishop and founder, from whom they derive their name of St. Thome Christians. His arrival may be placed towards the middle of the 5th century; since notice is taken by COSMAS INDOPLEUSTES [page 178-179] of Christians in the Pepper Country or Malé, who received their bishops from Persia, where the Nestorian Patriarch of that time resided, who had first his seat in Seleucia

Seleucia in Persia, afterwards at Babylon, and lastly at Mosul.

In the Malabar histories [Kerul Oodputtee] the first mention of a Syrian colony of Christians is made in the reign of Cocoorangon Perumal, who probably lived in the 6th century; a wealthy Syrian merchant of the name of THOME CANNANEO, is said to have landed at Cranganore, where he was well received, and induced to settle by great privileges granted to him by the PERUMAL. He afterwards married two wives; one of the Nair, and one of some low cast, by whom he had a very numerous progeny, who after his death had great disputes about his inheritance. These were carried to such a degree that at last they were obliged to separate themselves: the sons by the Nair woman settling in the southern parts, and the others in the northern parts of Malabar-where their descendants for a long time preserved this mutual enmity, and would on no account intermarry: there is also still a common tradition amongst them, that they descend (at least those that are from Syrian origin) from four principal Syrian families, who had successively settled on the coast.

We find again mention made of two Syrian or Chaldrean bishops of the name of Mar Sabro and Mar Brodt, (or rather Mar Sapor and Mar Peroses) at Coilan, about one hundred years after its foundation, where they were extremely well received by the Raja, and permitted to build a church, which was still extant when Cabral first visited Coilan. The grants and privileges which they received from the Raja, were engraved upon copperplates, which many centuries after were shewn to Archbishop De Menezes at Tevalcare, (perhaps Mavileare\*,) which are in all probability the very same that are now in possession of the Jews at Cochin.

IF

<sup>\*</sup> Vide Historia Synodi Diamperitanæ, page 8. CC-0. Gurukul Kangri University Haridwar Collection. Digitized by S3 Foundation USA

If one adds to these historical dates the name of Syrians retained by the St. Thomé Christians, their distinct features and complexion somewhat fairer than the rest of the Malabars, the style of their building, especially their churches, but above ail, the general use of the Syrian or rather Chaldwan language, which is preserved to this day in all their religious functions, even in those churches which have since embraced the Roman rite, and that to this day they take their christian and family names from the Syrian or Chaldwan idiom, no doubt can remain but that the St. Thomé Christians are originally a colony of Nestorians, who fled from the dominions of the Greek emperors, after Theodosius the Second had commenced to persecute the followers of the sect\*.

They made at first some proselytes amongst the Bramins and Nairs, and were on that account much respected by the native princes, so that even at present they consider themselves equal in rank to either of the above two casts. They are in fact in much greater estimation amongst the Hindoos, than the

Qui amplissimam obtenuerunt ædificandarum Ecclesiarum in iis regionibus facultatem, proventibus etiam ad hoc non exiguis attributis,
cujus privilegii aliorumque exemplar laminis æneis insculptum, litteris
non tantum Malabaricis, vetum Canarinis, Tamulanis, et Bisnagaricis exaratum ostensum suit Menessio in Tevalacare, ubi inter pretiosiores Ecclesiæ res in Cimeliarchio asservabatur.

\* NESTORIUS was patriarch of Constantinople, A. D. 428, under the reign of Theodosius the Second—His heretical opinions were first declared in 420, and condemned by the first council of Ephesus in 481. But the emperor was not prevailed on to banish Nestorius till 425; and four years more had elapsed before sentence of proscription passed against his followers.

Gibbon, Vol. viii. pag. 297.

GIBBON however (b. 346) asserts on the authority of St. Jerome himself (ad Marcellam Epist.) that the Indian Missionary St. Thomas was famous as early as his time—Now Jerome died in 420—Consequently the sect originally established in Malabar by Thomas could not have been that of Nestorius—Yet Gibbon himself appears to have overlooked this inconsistency.

NOTE BY THE SECRETARY.

new Christians converted by the *Portuguese*, and mostly picked up from the lowest cast. I have been assured by Padre Pavony, a well informed ex-jesuit, now at *Palghautcherry*, who was a long time as missionary amongst the *St. Thomé Christians*, that many of them preserve till now the manners and mode of life of the *Bramins*, as to cleanliness and abstaining from animal food, and that even he himself had been obliged to adopt the same regimen in order to gain credit amongst them.

As to their former manners, customs, and the privileges which they enjoyed, the *Portuguese* authors of the *Oriente Conquistato*, and DE BARROS, give the

following account of them.

THE St. Thomé Christians possessed upwards of one hundred villages, situated mostly in the mountainous part of the southern division of Malabar. bitations were distinguished from those of the Hindoos by being mostly solid buildings, and collected in villages, not scattered and dispersed as those of the Bramins and Nairs. They obeyed their Archbishop, whose seat was at Angamalee, both in ecclesiastical and civil matters, paying a very moderate tribute to the different Rajas, in whose territory they lived, who very little interfered in their concerns. When any complaints in civil matters were preferred to the Archbishop, he used to appoint arbitrators or judges, whose sentence was final; but they never condemned any person to death, but all crimes were expiated with pecuniary fines. paid no tithes to their clergy, but at their weddings they used to offer the tenth of the marriage gift to their churches. At their weddings they were very profuse and ostentatious, and celebrated them with great pomp; it was then principally that they had occasion to make a shew of the privileges granted to them by one of the PERUMALS; as of the bride and bridegroom riding upon elephants, of having the hair ornamented with flowers of gold, of different musical instruments playing before them, as also of flags of different colours carried before them, &c. They all wore swords and targets, and some of them had firelocks; they were great marksmen, and, from their eighth year, used to frequent their firing schools: husbandry and trade were their principal occupations, and, next to the Bramins, the St. Thomé Christians used to furnish the greatest quantity of pepper to the Portuguese cargoes.

The girls were precluded from all inheritance, even if no sons were in the family; in which case the inheritance went to the next male cousin or uncle on the father's side. This singular law, which is so contrary to all *Malabar* customs, has unquestionably been imported from *Syria*, and serves as an additional proof of the *St. Thomé Christians* being originally

Syrian colonies.

As to their religious tenets, they followed general-

ly the doctrine of NESTORIUS.

THEY rejected the divine nature of CHRIST, and called the VIRGIN MARY, only the mother of CHRIST, not of GOD. They also maintained that the Holy Ghost proceeded only from the Father, and not from the Father and Son.

THEY admitted no images of saints in their churches, where the Holy Cross alone was to be seen.

THEY had only three Sacraments, Baptism, Eucharist, and the Orders; and would not admit transubstantiation in the manner the Roman Catholics do. They knew nothing of purgatory, and the saints they said were not admitted to the presence of GOD, but were kept in a third place till the day of judgment.

THEIR priests were permitted to marry, at least once in their life. Their rite was the Chaldwan or.

Syrian.

THEY were married in the presence of their priests, who are called Cassanas, and the whole ceremony consisted in tying a string round the girl's neck, as CC-0. Gurukul Kanas Haiversim Haritwar Collection Desired and strings and casts on

THE

the Malabar coast.

THE Cassanas were not permitted to use the Malabar language in their churches, and in instructing the youth; but taught them in the Chaldwan tongue.

THEY reckoned their Sunday from Saturday evening Vespers, till the first matin of Sunday, so that

after sun-rise they might work again.

This was the happy situation of the Nestorians, or St. Thomé Christians, before the arrival of the Portuguese in India. Agreeably to the spirit of those times, and especially of that bigoted nation. one of their first endeavours was to win over those heretics to the Roman rite: every art and every repurce was exhausted, especially during the reign of DON MANUEL, to reclaim those forlorn sons to the bosom of the church of Rome: but all peaceable and conciliatory means proved fruitless, though the sly jesuits had in some manner paved the way to an union, by mitigating the terms of their submission, under the supremacy of the Pope; by instituting seminaries, in which the Chaldwan language was taught to the young clergy; and, above all, by translating the Missal and Roman Catechism into the same language, and distributing them amongst the Syrian Whristians. Still they would not have succeeded, so stedfast did the St. Thomé Christians adhere to their lheresy, had not at last open force been employed.

The then Archbishop of Angamalee was a Syrian priest of the name of Mar Joseph; and as neither bribes nor menaces could induce him to acknowledge the supremacy of the Pope, the Archbishop of Goa and the Viceroy at last arrested him, and sent him prisoner to Portugal: but he had the art to ingratiate himself with the Queen Donna Catharina, and the rest of the Royal Family, whom he had made to believe, that he had since been convinced of the truth of the Catholic religion; and that on his return line would bring about a re-union of his flock with the see of Rome; so that in the year 1564 he was permitted to return, with orders to the Viceroy No-

RONHA to restore him, and to afford him in future

every possible protection and assistance.

In the mean time, the St. Thomé Christians had applied to the then patriarch of Babylon, as soon as they heard of the confinement and subsequent transportation of their Archbishop to Portugal, for a new metropolitan, whom they obtained in the person of But he had hardly taken posses-MAR ABRAHAM. sion of his see, when MAR JOSEPH returned from Europe, with his Diplomas from Donna Catha-RINA. The consequence was an immediate schism. and the whole Malabar Christians divided themselves into two parties, one adhering to MAR JOSEPH, and the other to MAR ABRAHAM. But MAR Jo-SEPH being supported by the whole power of the Portuguese government, he soon got the better of his antagonist, whom the Rajas of Cochin, and Paroor, received orders to seize, and to deliver to the commandant of Cochin, in order to be sent to Europe. The vessel on board of which he was, happening to touch at Mosambique, he found means to make his escape, and to reach Babylon over land; but, instead of returning to Malabar, he resolved to go of his own accord to Rome, where he did not fail to captivate the mind of Pope Pius IV. in such a manner, that his recantation of the Nestorian heresy was gladly received, and himself newly ordained, and consecrated and loaded with the highest ecclesiastical dignities; though amongst his papers were found afterwards a protestation of his stedfast adherence to his former Doctrine, the abjuring of which, he said, was the only resource to save his life. He had also written letters to the same effect to India, which fell afterwards into the hands of the Archbishop DE MENEZES.

THE Portuguese clergy, however, were not less displeased with the conduct of Mar Joseph; who, notwithstanding all his promises to the Queen, and his protestations made to the Archbishop of Goa, and the

the Portuguese government, continued to govern his flock after the tenets of Nestorius, and to prevent rather than to promote a re-union with the Roman Catholics: so that a new order for his imprisonment was issued in the year 1567. He was a second time transported, first to Portugal, and afterwards to Rome, where he likewise contrived to make his peace with the Pope: but before he could undertake a new voyage to India, he died at Rome, on the

eve of being made a cardinal.

MAR ABRAHAM had in the mean time arrived at Goa, with new authority, and with brevets from the Pope; but the famous Archbishop DE MENEZES, on examining them, pretended that MAR ABRAHAM had deceived his holiness, and took upon himself to confine him in a convent, from which, however, he soon found means to make his escape, and to reach Angamalee over land, where he was received with uncommon exultation by all the St. Thomé Christians; and from dire experience he learned to take now such precautions that he put it out of the power of the Viceroy to get a third time hold of his person; and, after some fruitless attempts, he was effectually left in quiet possession of his see till his death: but at the same time the most vigorous measures were taken by the Portuguese government, that no Syrian priest might in future find his way to the Malabar Christians. As they were then masters of Ormuz, and the whole navigation on this side India, it is not surprising that they succeeded in preventing all intercourse between the Nestorian Patriarch at Babylon and the St. Thomé Christians at Angamalee. stand even accused of having drowned a new Syrian Bishop in the year 1644 in the road of Cochin. peated orders were also sent from Rome, not to allow, after MAR ABRAHAM's death, that another Archbishop of Syrian extraction should be nominated: MAR ABRAHAM died about the year 1597, in a very advanced age, professing to the last moment of his

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life his adherence to the Nestorian church, and his abhorrence of the tenets of the Popish religion. The Archbishop of Goa, Menezes, immediately appointed a Jesuit, Franciscus Roz, to fill the vacant seat of Angamalee; but to no effect, for he was not acknowledged nor admitted by the St. Thomé Christians, who had previously elected a priest of their own of the name of George for their Archdeacon, till a new metropolitan could be procured from Ba-

bylon.

MENEZES resolved now to visit in person the Malabar Christians, and to try if by his presence and influence he could bring about a sincere and lasting re-union. The appearance of a man of his birth, rank, wealth, and power, as primate of India, to which he joined an equal zeal, devotion, and great private virtue, was decisive. The forlorn GEORGE employed at first every evasion and subterfuge that his natural sagacity and his great attachment to his sect could suggest, in order to gain time for a new Bishop to arrive from Babylon, who might be able to meet ME-NEZES upon equal terms: but no bishop from Babylon did or could make good his voyage to India, and MENEZES was indefatigable, bold, persevering, and lavish of his wealth; and had all the petty Rajas of that time at his command. He appointed at last a mock council or synod at Odiamper, in the vicinity of Coehin, in the year 1599, where he assembled most of the Syrian priests or Cassanas, and four elders from each village; and after some shew of disputation, and explanation of the controverted tenets of the church of Rome, he proceeded to dictate the law to them, there being not a person of sufficient erudition, or of consideration and influence enough amongst the Cassanas, who could dare to oppose MENEZES: and to appearance the Nestorians of Malabar were united to the Roman church \*.

MENEZES

<sup>\*</sup> We cannot sufficiently lament the great loss which literature sus-

MENEZES appointed Roz a second time Archbishop of the Syrian Christians; who, instead of Angamalee, took now his residence at Cranganore; and, since that time, a great part of the St. Thomé Christians remained united with the Roman church, and were governed by the successors of Roz, under the

title of Archbishop of Cranganore.

THIS re-union of the St. Thomé Christians to the see of Rome was, however, neither general nor sincere and lasting: for, a short time after, some Maronites, or Nestorian priests, found their way to the mountains of Travancore, where they revived the old doctrines and rites, and ever since kept up their communication with the Jacobites, Maronites, and Nestorians of Syria. At present there are thirty-two churches of this description remaining, which are called Schismatic Syrians by the Portuguese and Roman clergy. They have a Bishop, or MAR THOME', who resides at Narnatte, about ten miles in land from Porca; and was consecrated by some Jacobite Bishops sent from Antiochia for that purpose in the year 1752. He adheres more to the doctrine of Eu-TICHES than of NESTORIUS.

ABOUT 84 of the old St. Thomé churches remain united to the Roman Catholic religion, and are governed by the Archbishop of Cranganore, or, as he used to style himself, the Archbishop of the Malabar B B B 3 Christians

tained on that occasion; for this blind and enthusiastic inquisitor, detroyed, like a fecond OMAR, all the books written in the Syrian or Chaldwan language, which could be collected, not only at the Synod of Odiamper, but especially during his subsequent circuit; for as soon as he had entered into a Syrian Church, he ordered all their books and records to be laid before him; which, a few indifferent ones excepted, he committed to the flames; so that at present neither books nor manuscripts are any more to be found amongst the St. Thomé Christians.

Christians of the Mountains. Since the death of the last Archbishop, the Government of Goa, who had formerly the nomination, thought proper to appoint only a Vicar General, who resides at present at Pecke palliporte. He is a native of Malabar, of Syrian extraction, of the name of THOME ENAMAKEL. These united St. Thomé Christians retain only the peculiarity of the Chaldwan language being still used in their churches, for which they are furnished with the necessary books, from the Congregatio de propaganda fide : printed at Rome 1774, under the title, Ordo Chaldaicus Missa Beatorum Apostolorum juxta ritum ecclesiæ Malabariæ, and Ordo Chaldaicus rituum et Lectionum juxta morem ecclesiæ Malabariæ. Romæ 1775.

THE St. Thomé or Syrian Christians, of both descriptions, never claimed the particular protection of either the Portuguese or Dutch, as the new Christians do, but considered themselves as subjects of the different Rajas in whose districts they lived; and as long as the old Hindoo system, and the former division of the country, under a variety of petty Rajas, was preserved, they appear to have enjoyed the same degree of freedom, ease, and consideration, as the Nairs. But when the Rajas of Travancore and Cochin had subjected to themselves all the petty Rajas and chiefs whose respective territories were situated within the lines of Travancore, they also overturned the whole political system established by CHERUMA PERUMAL; and by setting aside the immunities and privileges of the higher casts, they established a most oppressive despotism, in the room of the former mild limited Oligarchy: and we ought not to be much surprized to behold the present wretched situation of those formerly so flourishing Syrian villages, since we see the Bramins and Nairs stript of most of their old

old prerogatives, and subject to almost the same oppressions and extortions.

THE NEW OR PORTUGUESE CHRISTIANS.

THEY consist of that race of new converts, whom the Portuguese made mostly from the lowest casts along the sea shore, where they built a great many churches; which, in distinction from the Syrians, are generally called the Latin churches. They consider themselves not as subjects of the different Rajas in whose territory they reside, but enjoyed formerly the protection of both the Portuguese and the Dutch governments, to a great extent. They acknowledged only their jurisdiction in civil and criminal matters, and paid no taxes to the native princes. This exemption they maintained, in some manner, till the year 1785, when Mr. VAN ANGELBECK, then governor of Cochin, saw no other remedy to save at least part of their privileges from the daily increasing power of the Raja of Cochin, but to enter into a new written agreement with the Raja; in conformity to which they were to pay a certain stipulated sum yearly to the Raja, which should be collected by their own head people; and in case of delays or failure, the Dutch government was to inforce payment, and not the Raja. Another article defined the jurisdiction which the Dutch should still exercise over them. But even these stipulations, the Raja did not long nor scrupulously adhere to, till at last he went so far as to turn a great part of them fairly out of his dominions, by obliging them to accept some trifling consideration for the landed estates which they were compelled to abandon, and the rest he treated, if possible, more severely than his own Hindoo subjects. THE B B 4 .

THE number of these Christians who consider themselves as under the protection of the Fort of Cochin, is computed to amount to about 36,000.

In ecclesiastical matters they were formerly subject to the *Portuguese* bishop of *Cochin*, whom the *Dutch* expelled as soon as they got possession of the Fort. Thence he went to fix his residence at *Coilan*, retaining, however, his former appellation of Bishop of *Cochin*, and a great part of his former ecclesiastical jurisdiction over all the churches that were not under the immediate controul of the *Dutch*. His successors continue to preside over the same diocese, which extends as far as the *Cavery* river, on the other coast, including the Island of *Ceilon*; comprehending more than 100 churches of the new or *Latin* Christians.

When, for political reasons, the Dutch had expelled the Portuguese Bishops from Cochin; in order that the churches, which were now under their immediate protection, should not remain without an ecclesiastical chief, they applied to the see of Rome for a new Bishop, who would be under their controul, and whom they could better trust than a vassal of Portugal. The Pope, in compliance with their wishes, sent out a Carmelite Friar, with episcopal powers, under the name of Vicar General, and the States General granted him a diploma to that purpose in the year 1698.

THEY made it however an express condition with the Pope, that he should appoint no Vicar General who was not by birth either a German, Dutchman, or Italian; the company reserving to themselves the right of rejecting him if they have any exception against his person; and that in general, he must consider himself as subject to the Company's or-

ers.

His paltry allowance of about 400 rupees per

annum,

n annum, is paid by the Congregatio de propaganda fide, and his residence is at Varapoly, in a convent of his own order, which is also supported by the propa-

ganda.

His diocese extended formerly as far as the political influence of the *Dutch* could reach, and with the gradual decline of their power he also lost successively the greatest part of his churches; which returned either under the *Portuguese* bishop of *Coilan*, or the *Vicar General* of the *Syrian* churches brought over to the *Latin* rite; so that at present only fourteen churches remain under his episcopal jurisdiction.

The ruins of an old Syrian or Nestorian church are still extant, on a rising ground at the eastern extremity of the village of Coorty, two miles distant from Ramiseram Gate, on the high road leading to Trichoor. It was the first Christian temple that Tippoo's bigoted fanaticism doomed to destruction, after his successful storm on the too extensive and feeble barrier, the Travancore lines, in 1790; from whence a general conflagration of all Hindoo temples and Christian villages, with their churches, marked the progress of the destroying host, as far as Varapoly, and in the space of three days, thirteen large, and in many respects handsome piles of building, were laid in ruins.

Almost all temples belonging to the St. Thomé Christians in the southern Malabar, of which I had occasion to observe more than forty, were built in the same style, and nearly upon the same plan. The façade with little columns, (evidently in imitation of the style of architecture prevalent in Asia Minor and Syria, from which the Christian religion, and with it the model of their temples, appears to have been transplanted into Malabar;) being every where the same; only that those belonging to the old Nestorians or Schismatics have preserved their ancient sim-

plicity,

plicity, and that the fronts of such as adopted afterwards the Latin rite, and acknowledged the supremacy of the Roman see, are decorated with Saints in niches or basso-relievos, and that some of the most conspicuous had an arched choir.—The largest Christian temple was at Alangadee or Mangatte, five miles from Paroor, and to judge from the present ruins, it must have been a very handsome and noble structure. At Angamalee, the seat of the Syrian Metropolitan, there were not less than three spacious temples, not inferior to the specimen exhibited in the ruins of Coorty. But they have all been converted into heaps of ruins, by the destroying hand of the Mysorean invader, as was also the neat church and

college built by the Jesuits at Amblagatte.

THE great number of such sumptuous buildings as the St. Thomé Christians possessed in the inland parts of the Travancore and Cochin dominions is really surprising; since some of them, upon a moderate calculation, must have cost upwards of one lack of rupees, and few less than half that sum. How different must have been the situation of this people in former times, in comparison with the wretched condition in which we behold them at present! scarcely able to erect a cadjan shed for their religious meetings over those splendid ruins, that attest at the same time their former wealth and present poverty. In the same proportion that their opulence decreased, their population appears also to have diminished. Alangada contained, before the year 1750, more than a thousand Christian families, who lived in substantial houses, of which the ruins are still extant, and bear evidence to the fact. Of those families not full one hundred are now remaining, and them I found in the most abject state of misery. The same melancholy contrast is observable at Angamalee, and many other formerly opulent christian towns and villages. THEIR

vi.

THEIR pristine flourishing condition, and even copulence, however, can easily be accounted for. The bulk of the St. Thomé Christians consisted mostly of converts from the Bramin and Shoudren cast; and not, as the new Christians, or proselytes made by the Portuguese missionaries, of the lowest tribes: and as the introduction and propagation of the Christian religion, by the Syrian adventurers, probably so early as the fifth century, gave no umbrage to the PERUMALS, who, at that period, governed Malabar, these converts were allowed to retain their patrimonial estates, with equal security, and exemption from maxes, as the indigenous Bramins and Nairs. For, under the ancient mild Hindoo government, and even in modern times, till HYDER ALLY made his first irruption, imposts on landed property were unknown in Malabar. The St. Thomé Christians possessed, in addition, another source of wealth, which was trade. They were, in fact, the only, at least the principal merchants in the country, till the Arabs settled on the coast; and they continued in a flourishing situation, till towards the middle of the present æra, when the Rajas of Travancore and Cochin noverturned the whole system and laws established by the celebrated CHERUMA PERUMAL; and after dispossessing the independent Rajas of Paroor, Alangada, Tekencoor, Waddakencoor, Porka, Coilan, Callicoilan, and many other petty Nair chiefs, under the name of CAYMALS, who formed the states of the country, and were long a strong barrier against the attempts at absolute power by the Rajas; they divided into unequal shares the whole of the conquered countries, of which the Raja of Travancore appropriated to himself by far the greatest part, and introduced the present oppressive system of government; if that can be called such, which is in fact an injudicious imitation of the late Mysorean system of finances; without the order, regularity, and in some manner manner impartial administration of justice, which is necessary to support it, and without which it must unavoidably degenerate into endless and generally destructive schemes of extortion and rapine, that soon or late must bring such unhappy countries, let their natural resources be ever so great, to the lowest state of wretchedness; as is already the case both in the *Travancore* and *Cochin* dominions.

### Note on KEROL OODPUTTEE, page 367.

Several copies of this valuable historical monument are in the possession of the writer of this, of which he purposes to publish a free translation at some future period. The name given to these annals of Malabar is differently spelled and explained; some call it Keralulpaddy, which means the common-wealth of Malabar or Kerala, (the Sanscrit name for Malabar;) others write Keralawilpatty, and translate it Historical account or description of Kerala, which is the original name to the low country, and still used in Sanscrit: for the hill country had existed long before, and was known under the name of Mala or Malleam the hill country, but in the lapse of time the name of Malleam prevailed, and was applied to both the hilly and the low country, and the name of Kerala became obsolete.

#### XIV.

Account of an hereditary living Deity, to whom devotion is paid by the Bramins of Poona and its neighbourhood.

BY CAPTAIN EDWARD MOOR.

The opportunity afforded me of visiting the city of *Poona*, with the embassy in 1800, I eagerly embraced, to obtain information respecting an extraordinary family, which enjoys the distinction of an hereditary incarnation of the divinity, from father to son; and the following is the result of my researches. My opportunities for inquiry were favourable, and I consider my authorities tolerably good; but I think it necessary to premise, that I do not pledge myself for the minute veracity of every particular.

MOORABA GOSSEYN was a Bramin of Poona, who by abstinence, mortification and prayer, merited, above others, the favourable regards of the Almighty. Gunputty, the most common name in this country, among the many hundreds of Sake Ganesa, accordingly vouchsafed to appear to him, at Chinchoor\*, in a vision by night; desired him to arise, and bathe; and while in the act of ablution to seize, and hold sacred to the godhead, the first tangible substance that his hand encountered. The God covenanted that a portion of his Holy Spirit should pervade the person thus favoured, and be continued

as

<sup>\*</sup> This town is also called Chicoor, Chicoree, or Chintijwur; the latter is perhaps the most correct orthography.

as far as the seventh generation, to his seed, who were to become successively hereditary guardians of this sacred substance, which proved to be a stone, in which the God was to be understood as mystically typified. This type is duly reverenced, is carefully preserved, and hath ever been the constant companion of the sanctified person inheriting with it the divine patrimony.

This annunciation happened about the year A. D. 1640, and six generations have since passed away.

It doth not now appear what was the precise extent of the divine energy originally conceded; but it is inferred to have been a limited power of working miracles. Such as healing sickly uncleanlinesses, granting to a certain degree the desires of pious suppliants, and the faculty of foretelling, under some re-

strictions, the events of futurity.

These gifts appear, indeed avowedly, to have been enjoyed in a more extensive degree by the first possessors, than by the latter.—The Bramins admit that the farther the remove from the favoured man in whom the God became incarnate, the greater is the chance of degeneracy; although such degeneracy might not have been inevitable. It is therefore presumable that the early inheritors worked more conspicuous miracles than have of late been manifested.—Some remains of supernatural power have, however, been remarked, as will be noticed, in the existing incumbent, Gabajee Deo.

THE holy inheritance has thus descended.

MUN DEO (the 1st) at the time of the visitation; and as he immediately became Sunna-assee, he had of course no other; to him about the year 1650, fell the godly estate. His eldest son Narrain Deo succeeded, and after dispensing his miraculous energies twenty-five years, died, leaving them to Chinto Man

MUN DEO (the 2d). His eldest son DURNEE DURR DEO succeeded, and died about the year 1770, from which period his first born, GADAJEE DEO has possessed, with its sanctified accompaniment, the guar-

dianship of the sacred stone.

THE divine donation was covenanted to continue but for seven generations: - whence, on the demise of BAWA DEO, the present heir apparent, to whom in the fulness of time it will descend, the holy incarnation, unless perpetuated by farther miracles, will, as an emanation from God, be absorbed in him.

IT doth not appear that every DEO (by which title the representative of this family is always called) hath performed miracles. One is mentioned of the original founder of this incarnate godhead, if it ma be so called, which produced the first worldly posses-

sion of the family.

Soon after his visitation, and while in great poverty, he was passing by Panowla, a town near Chinchoor, the Pataleen \* of which place having been many years married, without male issue, despaired of ever obtaining that blessing. She implored and obtained the holy man's prayers, and her pious desire, and in token of her gratitude, bestowed on him the produce of a field, situated near Panowla, of the annual average value of three hundred rupees. With this a temple was endowed, at Chinchoor, which still enjoys the grateful gift, and had not for many years any other secular estate.

No miracle, that I have heard of, is recorded of

the next legatee.

NARRAIN DEO, the third in lineal ascent from the present Deo, performed a more important and conspicuous miracle. It was in his time that the Moghul army of Hydurabad so successfully invaded the

Maratta

<sup>\*</sup> Patel's wife.

Maratta territories. After plundering and burning Poona, a party proceeded to Chinchoor, to lay it under contribution. To this the DEO pointedly refused to submit; confiding in the divine influence wherewith he was invested. The intolerant Musulmans derided such superstition; and with the view of rendering it ridiculous, offered to send a nuzur to the DEO. The offer was accepted, the DEO betook himself to prayers, and the insulting bigots deputed certain persons, accompanied by many voluntary attendants to see the humorous result, with a ceremonious and apparently decorous and appropriate present. It, however, consisted solely of cow's flesh, and when the offensive obtruders promised themselves their sport, at the first exhibition of so horrid an abomination, how were they astonished and dismayed at uncovering trays of the finest and most · sacred of Hindoo flowers!

STRUCK with the miracle, "those who went to scoff, remained to pray," and refraining from farther

indecency, recognised the finger of God.

So unequivocal an interposition of supernatural power wrought on the unyielding minds of the Musulmans; and to expiate their offence, a grant was soon after made by them, of lands, towns, &c. situated in the Moghut territories, and not their recent conquests, although not far from Chinchoor, of the yearly value of twenty-seven thousand rupees, which the temple enjoys to this day.

A farther grant of enaam lands about Chinchoor, of thirteen thousand rupees per annum, was made, at different times, by a late Peshwa, on what account, whether miraculous or not, I do not learn. The Bramins, however, admit such donations to be in themselves miracles; the generous impulse being from divine inspiration. These three grants the temple still enjoys, and they constitute its permanent

revenue

revenue.—The expences attending the charitable works of the Deo, such as supporting sacred establishments, feeding and nourishing Bramins, and holy and poor people, have amounted of late years, it is averred, on an average, to a lakh of rupees: Part of this is made up by the casual presents made by pious visitants, according to their faith, hope, or charity, but doth not amount, in general, to more than five thousand rupees; and the deficiency, of more than half a lakh, is therefore acknowledged to be miraculously acquired.

I WILL digress a moment here to observe, that it is not a very uncommon circumstance for a holy man professing poverty, and without the apparent means of gaining a rupee, and rejecting all offerings, to disburse thousands of rupees monthly with a very lavish hand. A convenient personage of this description resides in *Moorgoor*, a town twenty-five miles northerly from *Darwar*—Mr. Uhthoff and I were there in 1792, but did not then know of this mira-

culous prodigality, as it is reputed to be.

PRESENTS are made in kind to the DEO of Chinchoor: cultivators of land bring him grain, manufactures, cloths, &c.—the rich bring money and what they please. These are laid up in store-houses, after being registered by the servants of the temple, to which are attached a dewan, chobdars, accountants, &c. &c. all Bramins, as is every individual about the DEO; his palkee bearers on a journey only excepted.

However meritorious and honourable it may be deemed to be employed, even menially, about the sanctified person of the holy man; carrying the same a journey is rather too laborious and unprofitable a service for *Bramins* to undertake voluntarily. Where priests are the task-masters, it were unreasonable to expect that they, more than others, would allot the

severest to themselves.

Cc.

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The Deo is, ex officio, what is called a dewanna—but the term "fool," may not in this instance, as in most others, give the best translation of the word. He is totally unmindful and ignorant of worldly affairs—unable, they say, to hold conversation beyond the proposition, reply, and rejoinder, and then in a childish blubbering manner. To some questions on points of futurity he replies, accordingly as he is inspired, in pointed negatives or affirmatives; to others enigmatically, or by benignant or indignant gesture; sometimes he is totally silent, and, apparently absorbed in abstract cogitation, doth not recognize the suppliant. From such data is deduced how propitious, or otherwis, is the almighty will on the pursuits of the petitioner.

The ordinary occupations of the Deo do not differ materially from those of other holy men—he eats, takes wives to himself, &c. &c. like other Bramins, but by some is said to be exempt from illness; others say he is subject to bodily infirmities. So regular a life, however, in point of regimen, unruffled by worldly cares, may well ensure a continuance of health, and, in general, prolongation of existence.

As the elder son inherits the spark of divinity, it is necessary that he also be a fool, as he hath ever proved. To the question "whether, the second son being sane, and the elder dying without male issue, the second, to whom the patrimony then descends, would become dewanna on his accession?" the Bramins demur: It hath never, they say, happened. God made the covenant, and the means of fulfilling it are not for man to point out.

MOWEVER remote the degree of consanguinity may be, all of this family assume the final name Deo—It did not occur to me to inquire if the females are peculiarly estimable—I judge not very highly so, from never having heard of exalted personages seeking them as wives—the males, indeed,

do not, beyond the reigning family, seem much

distinguished.

It might not be very interesting, if practicable, to trace minutely the genealogy of this family to its holy root, and I shall go no farther in this retrospect than to the immediate ancestors of the present Deo. He, Durnee Dur Deo, called also Durnee Dur Bawa, had four sons (no daughters) by his only wife Aakah, who died in 1780, aged 65—about ten years after her husband, who lived to be nearly four score.

1. GABAJEE DEO, born about 1740.

2. Gunnaba Deo, born about 1750, died 1795.

3. MOORABA DEO, born about 1755, now living at Ranjangow, of which temple he is superior.

4. BAPPAJEE DEO, born about 1760, now living

at Ojoor, where he is head Brahmin.

GABAJEE DEO married 1. ABBA, EE, who, in 1775, bore him, when she was twenty years old, his only son BABA DEO, and died without further

issue, at the age of 26.

2. ABBAEE now living, about 35 years of age, who has proved barren. BABA, or BAWA DEO, married 1. NEEROBAEE, born about 1780, still living, by whom he has an only daughter born in 97, 2d. wife, name not known, born about 1784, this ends the eldest branch of the family.

GUNNABA DEO, the second son, had two sons, who are living, as is their mother, at Seedatak,

names not known.

MOORABA DEO, the third son, had only one wife, and by her one son, whose name does not occur. That son was eighteen years old in 1798, in which year he bruised himself to death on the pedestal of his god at Ranjangow, in consequence of some findignities offered him, or the temple, by a party of Sendea's soldiery: his widow is living childless, talthough the marriage was consummated at Randoneses, this ends the third branch

jungorec of this ends the third branch. Digitized by \$3 Foundation USA

BAPPAJEE DEO, the fourth son, has one wife, Gungabaee, now living, about thirty-five years: they have two sons, I. Barow Deo, born about 1786. 2d. Nanna Deo, born in 1787, both living at Ojoor. The eldest lost his wife in 1799, who had born him a son in 1797, named Heerum Deo, now living: he is married again, but his living wife is only eight years old. Nanna Deo has a wife twelve years old—no child.

The temple of this Bappajee Deo, at Ojoor, enjoys enaam land to the value of four thousand a year, granted by the present Peshwa, in consequence of supposed benefits received from the holy

man's prayers.

GABAJEE DEO goes at least thrice a year, on fixed days, to Moorishwur, a respectable town a few miles beyond Jejooree. A detail of the circumstances of his journey, which seldom vary materially, will tend to illustrate his character, and show the

degree of estimation in which he is held.

ONE of the days is the 2d of Mang, answering this year to the 31st of January. He leaves Chinchoor pretty early, and the Peshwa and court, apprised of his approach, go forth to meet him, generally about halfway between a hill called Gunniskunda, two miles off, and the city. The Deo rides in his palkee, attended (I speak now of the present Deo) by a suwaree elephant, given him by the late Peshwa, Madnoo Rao, a few, perhaps a dozen, of his own domestic horsemen, and about a hundred servants on foot; as he approaches the Peshwa, his palkee is put down, and he seats himself on a carpet, with the sacred stone, which he never quits, in a box beside him. The Peshwa alights from his palkee or elephant, advances toward the DEO with folded hands, the posture of a suppliant, prostrates himself and kisses his feet: the DEO neither rises, nor makes a salaam, but with his hands raised a little, with the

cc-o. Guruku Kahul Sinversity Haridwar collection. Digitized by \$3 Foundation USA accompanied

accompanied by a motion, signifying his desire that his visitor may be scated: the Peshwa, and a few distinguished persons, such as IMRIT RAO, CHIMNA APPA, &c. sit, but at some distance, on the carpet: two or three questions and answers of supplication and blessing are exchanged, and the DEO bestows on the Peshwa, and others, a quantity of rice and dal, and perhaps a cocoa nut, or such trifle. The Peshwa receives them, makes a humble obeisance, and takes leave. The DEO enters his palkee, and proceeds, followed by the Peshwa, &c. by the wooden bridge to the city: the Peshwa quits him near the palace, which the DEO never enters, nor the house of any mortal, but always finds his tents pitched at fixed stations. The first is Teeoor, a respectable town about ten or twelve miles from Poona; the next Rajwarry, a large village or town just above the ghaut, on the Jejooree, or Meritch road. At both these stages the DEO prepares a feast for all Bramins that choose to partake; he goes next day to Moorishwur, where he remains in his tents three or four days, and here the principal event of his journey is particularly noticed. On a certain day he orders a portion of rice to be cooked, the quantity is deter-The DEO mined by the inspiration of the Deity. has no premeditation; his impulses are divine and momentary. This quantity of rice, be it one kundee, one and a half, two, two and a half, or three kundees, (these have been the quantities usually ordered;) as to sufficiency or insufficiency for such as choose to eat of it, determine the bounty or scarcity of the ensuing year.

For instance, say one kundee shall usually suffice one thousand men of ordinary appetites; if this quantity be ordered, and four thousand, or more persons, shall assemble to partake of it, they shall nevertheless all depart satisfied, if the Almighty intend a sufficient season—nay, if an abundant year be willed, trag-

Cc3

ments.

ments, in proportion to the superabundance, shall remain.

IF, on the other hand, three kundees be cooked, and but one thousand, or fewer, persons partake thereof, they shall notwithstanding remain unsatisfied, although the whole shall have been eaten, should the displeasure of God threaten the land with scar-

city.

THE actions of the DEO on the night of this day are also minutely watched; as his actions, as well as words, are but the transient manifestations of the Almighty will, totally unpremeditated, and unrecognized by the DEO, they are noted as prophetic.-Should he remain the night through in peaceful repose, national repose is thence predicted; should his slumber, or his waking moments be perturbed, similar mishaps threaten the public weal. If, as hath happened, he starts wildly from his seat or couch, seizes a sword or spear, or makes any movements indicating martial measures, a war, attended by circumstances deduced from the nature of such movements, is foretold.—Every circumstance of this kind is carefully noted by persons employed by government; all is carefully considered, and reported accordingly, with appropriate inferences.

THE following is the miracle before hinted at, as performed by GABAJEE DEO, the only one that has come to my knowledge, excepting that continued one, as the Bramins affirm it to be, of miraculous prodigality. Living beyond one's visible means, seems a very loose argument in proof of a miracle, and would, I apprehend, be susceptible of application, too extensive to allow of its being considered

as legitimate.

A WELL known Sahookar of Poona, named TRIM-BUK Das, had, for many years, laboured under a cruel and unseemly disease, called here koora; it appears in white patches, of the size of a rupee, some

larger,

larger, some smaller all over the body, and although said not to be leprous, is clearly referrible to that class of disease. TRIMBUK DAS was afflicted to an offensive degree, but the disease, after baffling every effort of skill that could be exerted, yielded to the prayers of GABAJEE DEO, seconded by the long proved piety of the patient; who undeviatingly, during a course of I think seven or eight years, visited the holy man on a certain day of every moon, using on his return home, in partial and general lavements, the purifying water with which he and others had devoutly washed the feet of the sanctified personage: from such faith and piety he became whole and clean, and is now a perfectly sightly man -very few years have elapsed since this miracle was completed.

THE foregoing is the result of my inquiries on the subject of the Chinchoor DEO, to which tedious detail I have to add an account of a visit we paid him

on the 10th of January 1800.

I HAD expected to find Chinchoor, like Jejooree, filled with beggars, but was mistaken, for it bears the appearance of an industrious town; the houses are good, the streets clean, the shops well supplied, and the ground about it indicating seasonable cultivation; the town is pleasantly situated on the left bank of a pretty river, and is said to contain five thousand inhabitants, including three hundred Bramin families: we arrived early, and after seeing the principal temples, which are near the river, and the environs of the town, we took our breakfast of milk, Some of our fruit and bread, in a Bramin's house. party not being accustomed to the society of calves and horses, were rather annoyed by them, as well as Our party consisted of Colonel and by smoke. LORD GEORGE BERESFORD, and my colleague MR. LOVETT—a Bramin to introduce us to the DEO, an old acquaintance and fellow traveller of mine-an-C c 4 other other Bramin in office about the DEO, with whom I formed an acquaintance, in view to gathering the information detailed in this letter; and a Bruhmucharee from Bunarus, who was our constant companion, and seemed to care little for any other society.

ABOUT 9 o'clock we were informed that the DEO, who intuitively knew of our visit, had finished his prayers, and would see us, we accordingly proceeded, and after entering an extensive walled enclosure by a fortified gateway, were seated on carpets in a sort of veranda on a confined scale, into which a small door, not more than three feet by two, led from an apartment in which we learned the DEO then was: through this door none but Bramins were admitted. In two or three minutes the door opened, close to which sat the holy man, if it be lawful to call him man, on a shawl thrown over a seat a little raised, with another shawl over his head and shoulders: we immediately arose, and made a respectful sulam, and presented our offering, consisting of a cocoa-nut each, and a handful of rupees, about thirty. The Deo at first took very little or no notice of us, or the present, which was removed by an attending Bramin. Fresently he cast his eyes full on us, and surveyed us attentively, but wildly; and suddenly moving his head, he fixed his eyes with knitted brows on the ground, and soon as suddenly viewed Silence was now broken by our Bramins explaining to those attending who we were, (the DEO was supposed to know all about us,) and presently the DEO himself spoke. He desired we would tell our names, which we did, and proceeded to tell our business also, namely, "to bring a letter from HIS BRITANNIC MAJESTY to SREE MUNT, (the Peshwa,) which had been delivered the day before, and that now having paid our respects to MAHARAJ," (as the DEO is addressed in conversation,) "we had little else to do in this country, and should, after a visit visit in the evening to Doulut RA, o SENDH, EEA, return without delay to Bombay." The DEO continued some minutes in a state of apparent cogitation, sometimes fixing his eyes, but without "speculation," on us or other objects. He presently whispered one of the Bramins, and we were desired to ask any question or questions we pleased, as that, probably, futurity would be opened to us. We were not altogether prepared for this; however, we immediately desired to know the result of the present war between England and France, and when it would be terminated. It was communicated in a whisper, and in like manner directly answered by the DEO; when the Bramin declared aloud that the existing war would assuredly terminate triumphantly and advantageously to the English within six moons. We were, for fear of trespassing, rather sparing of

our questions.

THE Bruhmucharee had expressed some surprise and displeasure at the accounts we had previously given of this hereditary living Deity, and did not at this visit deport himself with such gravity and decorum as it is common for Bramins to assume. He would not profess any faith in the power ascribed to the DEO, of working miracles. He required, he said, ocular demonstration of the existence of that power; nor would he credit the prophetic spirit, until manifested by the fulfilment of the prediction. This, particularly the first want of faith, afforded great room to gall him in argument, as he did not perhaps foresee the extent of the objection; for he acknowledged he had never seen a miracle performed, although he would not disavow his belief in many. Following the bent of his inquisitive disposition, he asked the names of several persons near him, who happening to be of the reigning family, assumed the patronymic final of DEO, on which he was inclined to be jocose; and we were, indeed, obliged to re-

press

press his propensity to turning what he saw into ridicule.

After sitting about twenty minutes, we asked permission to depart, and while the customary gifts on taking leave were bringing, we were desired from the Deo to require something of him. The return to this generosity was easy enough, and we accordingly implored the favour of his holiness on our country, and his prayers for its prosperity in general, and our own in particular, which were vouchsafed, and in such a mode of expression as to leave an obvious opening to infer that such favour and prayers had not been without their previous effect in raising England and Englishmen to such a pitch of aggrandizement and general happiness. We had, therefore, only to beseech a continuance of his regard.

AT going away the DEO gave each of us, including the Bruhmucharee, some rice and spices.

We made our reverences and departed.

THE DEO did not appear to us to merit the appellation of *Deewana*. His countenance is expressive and not disagreeable, his eyes keen, complexion rather fair: he seemed about fifty-five, but is, they say, five years older, and is apparently, (but he did

not rise,) of middle stature.

WE saw also his son BAWA DEO, sitting at some distance, in the apartment with the DEO, among some Bramins. He is a fat, dark, but not very ill although rather stupid looking youth, about five-and-twenty. He took no notice of our salaam, farther than vacantly staring at us; of the two, the son looked by far the most like a Deewana in its usual signification.

I had nearly forgotten to mention that during the visit the Bruhmucharee was invited to see the symbol of the divinity, the sacred stone, to whose presence it was not judged advisable to admit us,

although

although we had been previously led to expect it; we did not, therefore, urge it, but the Bruhmucharee demurred at going, unless we also were indulged with a sight. He was, however, prevailed on to go without us; and he reported this typificacation to be an ordinary sort of a stone of three or four seers, coloured red, oiled, &c.

WITHIN the enclosure or fortification, as it may be called, in which the Deo lives, we were shewn a large room, with another over it, in which the Deo feeds Bramins. The two, they said, would accommodate two thousand persons. The one we saw was every large, and either, they said, built by Hurry Punt, or that he had entertained a party there.

WE here put on our shoes, which we had of course quitted at the entrance of the holy ground, and de-

parted.

Letter to the Secretary from His Excellency the Honourable FREDERIC NORTH, Governor of CEYLON; introductory to the following Essay.

## WILLIAM HUNTER, Esq.

Secretary to the Society for Asiatic Researches, &c. &c. &c.

SIR,

CALCUTTA.

I HAVE the honour of transmitting to you, to be laid before the Committee of Papers, an Essay on the Religion and Customs of the Cingalese, drawn up by Mr. Joinville, surveyor general to this government.

It is necessary to mention, that this Essay was concluded before the arrival on this island of the embassy of Colonel Symes, and of the account of the Religion and Customs of the Inhabitants of Burmah by Doctor Buchanan, contained in the sixth volume of the Researches of the Society.

I have the honour to be,

SIR,

Your most obedient humble Servant,

FREDERIC NORTH.

COLOMBO, 27th September 1801.

#### XV.

# On the Religion and Manners of the People of Ceylon.

## BY MR. JOINVILLE.

ANTIQUITY OF THE RELIGION OF BOUDHOU.

It is generally known that the religion of Bounnou is the religion of the people of Ceylon, but no one is acquainted with its forms and precepts. I shall here relate what I have heard upon the subject, and I have the satisfaction to think, that though my information may not be altogether complete, yet it will serve as a clue for future and deeper researches. The first person who treats on such a subject, labours under disadvantages, which succeeding authors know how to turn to their own account, by finishing what a former hand had sketched, claiming the merit of the whole work. Regardless, however, of this consideration, I have the consolation to think I shall be useful to him who may next treat of the present subject.

TF BOUDHOU be not an allegorical being, he is a man of genius, who has made laws and established a religion over a large tract of Asia. It is hard to say whether HE, ZOROASTER, or BRAHMA were the most ancient. In fact, it would be necessary towards the decision of this question, first, to establish that these three legislators had really existed, or rather if these names are not merely attributes. ZOROASTER is the only one represented as a man, BRAHMA being always drawn as a part of and uniting the three supreme powers of Creator, preserver and destroyer, in his own person. Boudhou is superior

to all the gods; he is, however, not what we mean by a god, being inferior to them in some things, and above them in others. He is not purely a spirit, as he has a body: he over-runs the different worlds with rapidity, in the same manner as the geniuses in the Arabian Tales, well beloved by VISHNOU, and aided by his power. He governs the bad spirits, who have withdrawn their allegiance from the gods, and who are hurtful to men: yet he is the son of a king, a husband, a father, and a pilgrim. He is eighteen cubits in height, eats rice and vegetables, and has several of the attributes of humanity. He is called SAMAN the Saint by Excellence. made every inquiry, and have been informed that there is no etymology for the word Boudhou in the ancient languages of Ceylon. Whatever may be the opinion of the Singalese respecting him, we shall consider him as a man. As BRAHMA is an idea, and not a being, there can be no question about whether Boudhou lived before or after what never existed as a being. But it would be well worth ascertaining which of the two religions, of BRAHMA or of Bouрнou, is the more ancient. similarity of the two religions, there can be no doubt but that the one is the child of the other; but it is hard to know which is the mother. religion of Boudhou in ancient times extending from the north of Tartary to Ceylon, and from the Indus to Siam, (I will not say as far as China, because I do not believe that FOE and BOUDHOU were the same person.) In the same manner we see that of BRAHMA followed in the same countries, and for as long a space of time. It is, therefore, not in history, but in the precepts of the two religious, that are to be found the data by which to decide this question. According to the Brahmins, a being existing of itself hatched an egg on a flower of a lotus that was floating on the waters, and out of this egg came the world: if they were asked whence came this

this egg, they would no doubt answer that the Supreme Being had laid it; therefore the world has been created. In the opinion of the Boudhists there has been no creation; Maha Brahma, all the Sakreia, and Brahmes, have existed from all time, and so have the worlds, the gods, the human race,

and all the animated beings.

THEY do not believe in the history of the egg, and though they hold the flower of lotus in respect, it is for a very different reason from the Brahmins. According to the latter, animated nature is subject to perpetual transmigration. The soul, given to all animals, departs from the body of one to enter that of another, and so on ad infinitum. The Boudhists believe that the soul exists from all time; that they are to transmigrate in the course of a time infinitely long, to be determined by their good or bad behaviour, and then cease to exist. The end of the soul is called, in Singalese, Nivani, and I am told in Sanscrit, Nirgwani. This is the passive happiness to which all the Boudhists look up. A criminal, that was lately hanged at Point de Galle, declared he was happy to die, as he would then become Nivani. But in this he shewed his ignorance of his religion, as he could not become Nivani till he first had been one of the Boudhous. The Brahmins calculate the antiquity of the world beyond what can be conceived by the most extravagant mind; but these calculations are supported by astronomical periods ingeniously combined together. As the world never was created in the opinion of the Boudhists, their calculations only relate to the immense number of transmigrations of Boudhou, from the time he first thought of becoming Boudhou, till that when he became Nivani; and this period they compute at an unit followed by sixty-three Zeros, being the result of some combinations so intricate,

that it may be easily imagined that very few of their wise men understand them. There are traces, however, of the Brahmin calculations to be found in those of the Boudhists. The Brahmins and Boudhists are equally bigoted and extravagant, with this difference, that in the former religion are found very deep ideas of astronomy, in the latter none; I have till now searched in vain for an instructive work in Singalese, relative to the heavenly bodies, and have only found uninteresting speculations on the influence of the stars on the affairs of the world: the Brahmins respect fire, the Boudhists do not. The former eat of no animal, the latter are restricted only to the not partaking of the flesh, of nine, of which the ox is the principal.

I AM rather of opinion, upon a comparison of the two religions, that that of Boudhou is the more ancient, for the following reasons-The religion of Boudhou having extended itself in very remote times, through every part of India, was in many respects monstrous and unformed. An uncreated world and mortal souls, are ideas to be held only in an infant state of society, and as society advances such ideas must vanish. - A fortiori, they cannot be established, in opposition to a religion already prevailing in a country, the fundamental articles of which are the creation of the world and the immortality of the soul. Ideas in opposition to all religion cannot gain ground, at least cannot make head, when there is already an established faith; whence it is fair to infer, that if Boudhism could not have established itself among the Brahmins, and if it has been established in their country, that it must be

In looking into the Singalese books, we find several striking resemblances between their astronomical system, and that of the Brahmins; for in-

stance, we see the number 432, followed by any number (no matter how great) of zeros, which among the Indians is the result of certain combinations in the movement of the heavenly bodies; combinations which agree almost exactly with the calculations founded on NEWTON's system. This same number 432, among the Boudhists, is no longer the result of astronomical combinations, but of arithmetical ones, arranged expressly to obtain it. The Boudhists have only a mechanical knowledge of it, and generally attach sixty zeros to it; whereas the Bramins put but three or four: had the former received it from the latter, they would have either kept it entirely, or changed it entirely in its mysticonumeric details, so that the number 432 would either have been kept in its original purity, or entirely lost; but if, on the contrary, they transmitted the science to the Bramins, as in the unfortunate wars which they must have suffered in the reformation by the Bramins, they were driven from their country; and their effects, books, observatories and astronomical tables were lost; they could preserve only a loose remembrance of their former science, (for they were obliged to wander a long time before they could unite in a body either on Ceylon or Siam.) Hence, is it not evident that the Boudhists were possessed of. astronomy before the Bramins, and as both religion and astronomy are united, is it not probable that the religion of the Boudhists is the more ancient? It is ascertained that ZOROASTER is not very ancient: it is said that a council was held on the subject of his principles, and that the result was an adherence to their belief in the immortality of the soul: therefore, ZOROASTER must have established something, perhaps the adoring of fire, or somewhat of that kind at present used by the Parsees of Bombay and Surat. The Bramins do not adore, but they respect fire, and keep

keep some constantly lighted in their houses, as well as in their temples. The Boudhists pay no kind of regard to it, because nothing of the kind was thought of when their religion was formed. The Boudhists eat animals, the Bramins do not. If it should be held that reforms tend to the perfection of religion, to decide on the question of priority of age on that ground, it should be ascertained whether it be better to eat a partridge than a potatoe, which being a matter of taste, cannot be easily decided. But there is a more direct way of coming to a conclusion on this subject. All reformers attempt to throw a slur on the individuals professing the religion they wish to reform: now if the Boudhists had been the reformers, they could not have reproved the Bramins for eating rice, as they eat it themselves; nor for eating rice only, for when the religion allows eating both meat and rice, it is in every person's choice whether he will eat only one of these. But if, on the contrary, the Bramins had been the reformers, they could throw blame on the Boudhists, by prohibiting meat to themselves: these reasons make me believe that the religion of the Bramins is not so ancient as that of the Boudhists, and that MENU was the reformer. But that is a question of no importance to what I have to say further.

ACCORDING to all the old Singalese authors, particularly Nimi Giateke\*, and the Boudhou Gunukatave†, Boudhou transmigrated during four asankes, and one hundred thousand mahakalpes of years, from the time he took the resolution to become Boudhou, till that when he was born for the last time according to some, or, as others will have it, till he became Nivani. To form an idea of this pe-

riod.

<sup>\*</sup> An incarnation of Boudhou, under the name of king NIMI.

<sup>+</sup> History of the achievements of Boudhou.

riod, the meaning of the words asanke and mahakalpe must be explained. There are two ways of explaining mahakalpe: the first supposes a cubic stone of nine cubits on each side; a goddess of great beauty dressed in robes of the finest muslin, passes once in every thousand years near this stone, at each time the zephyr gently blowing the muslin on it, till in this way it is worn down to the size of a grain of mustard: the space of time necessary for this is called antakalpe; eighty antakalpes make one maha-According to the second way of explaining the term, it is said that the earth increases seven yoduns in one antakalpe; but a thousand years only increase it the thickness of one finger, in the opinion of the Boudhists. It then remains to be seen, how many fingers there are in one yodun. The calculation is as follows:

 12 fingers · · · · make · · · · 1 viet.

 2 viets · · · · · · · · 1 riene or cubit.

 7 rienés · · · · · · 1 jaté.

 20 jates · · · · · · · 1 isbe.

 80 isbes · · · · · · · 1 gaoué.

4 gaoues ····· ·· 1 yodun. — About 14 English miles. One yodun is, consequently, 1075200 fingers -7 yoduns 7526400 fingers, which, multiplied by 1000, the number of years makes 7526400000, the amount of an antakalpe, which, multiplied by 80, produces 602112000000 years, or one mahakalpe. The first computation, involving in it a calculation beyond the power of the human imagination to reach, leaves us nothing to say on the subject, except to express our total disbelief of it. The second is at least intelligible, and, it will be seen, bears a smaller proportion to an asanke, than a second does to a thousand centuries. The asanke is a number explained in three verses by an ancient author; these three verses are composed of the following D p 2 words,

words,	each having	a nui	nerical 1	meaning-	Satan,
Sahajan	, Lakhan or	Lakse,	or Lack	, &c. &c.	

One sanke or asanke is, therefore, a number of years amounting to an unit with sixty-three zeros after it. I suspect that there is an error in the four first numbers, though all those, whom I have consulted, have assured me there is not. This is to be lamented; for had the account commenced with 1, the second line been 1000, the third 1,000,000, &c. and so on, and that the second were added to the first, the third to the two preceding ones, the fourth to the three, and so on, it would produce a fine magical square, of the same description as that displayed by the wise men of Siam, and which a famous astronomer,

astronomer, Mons. DE CASSINI, has not thought unworthy of employing his time in calculating. is worthy of remark, that the asanké is denominated by sixty-four cyphers. For if this number be used to divide a mahakalpe 60211200000, the quotient is 940800000, which last number can be equally divided by 64, by 4, by 80, by 32, all remarkable numbers in the mysterious calculations of the Boudhists. the numbers of antakalpes, 80, be multiplied by the number of Boudhous, 5, it will give 400; and if 64, the number of cyphers in an asanké, be multiplied by 5, it will give 320; these two numbers, added together, make the quotient of 432000, by 600, a period famous among the Chaldeans as well as the Indians, 432000 representing the Kali of the Bramins. It is certainly not enough that this number should be produced by means of certain divisors and multiplicators; but it must be proved that these numbers are particularly marked in their religion. The number 5 stands for the five Boudhous, of whom one is yet to come. The number 4 represents the four Boudhous that have already appeared, and also the four asankes of transmigrations of GAU-TEME, the fourth BOUDHOU; 80 is the number of years of the last life of the same Boudhou, for, according to the most authentic works, he was,

Kumareïa (Prince) during .... 16 years.
King, during .... 13 do.
Pilgrim, during .... 6 do.
Boudhou, during .... 45 do.

Total ... 80

THIRTY-Two represents the number of his great qualities, as well as of his middling ones, which, added together, amount to 64, the number of cyphers of the asanke.—In fine, to be short, we shall only observe that four asankes, 100,000 mahakalpes, and 32 great qualities of Boudhou, compose mysting D D 3 cally.

cally, if not arithmetically, the Kali of the Brahmins of 432,000 years.—We shall have occasion hereafter to remark the coincidence in the calculations of the Boudhists with those of the Brahmins.—The Boudhists of Ceylon are the descendants of the Boudhists of the continent of Asia, who emigrated at the revolution effected by the Brahmins.—Having lost their astronomical tables, they have attempted, by a variety of forced, and often unintelligible calculations, to produce the numbers resulting from the astronomical experiments of their ancestors,—as they have themselves preserved not thing of the science, except these numbers.

#### COSMOGONY.

THE Boudhists imagine, that the world is composed of an infinite number of worlds, resembling one another. In the centre of these, lies a stone called Maha Meru Pargwette, (Pargwette signifies a stone in the Pali language,) sixty-eight thousand yoduns in height, and ten thousand in circumference, making a hundred and forty thousand English miles. SAKREIA, the King and God, lives at the top: around this stone lies another, called Yougandere Pargwette, one half the height of the The space between these stones is filled with water, and is termed Sidhante Sagre, meaning the coldest water: Yougandere is the seat of the stars, the planets, and all the bodies whether luminous or not, which we call celestial; around Yougandere is Issedare Pagwette, where lives a bird called Gourolass, 150 yoduns in height: and next to it lies Karvike Pargwette, an uninhabited stone; Next to the last mentioned place is Soudassene Pargwette,

wette, a similar one: next to that Vineteke, and then Assuekaru. The space between all these stones is filled with the coldest water, Sidhante Sagre. Tchiakrevatte Pargwette, or Sakwelle Gale, surrounds a vast space inclosing Assuekaru. The circumference of Sakwelle Gale is 3,610,350 yoduns, and its diameter 1,203,400, uninhabited, is all of solid stone. Each of these Pargwettes is only half as high as that which it surrounds; so that Assuckaru is one 128th part of the height of Maha Meru, and Tchiakrevatte Pargwette one 256th part. Between Assuekaru and Tchiakrevatte are four countries, called Maha Dwipes, (Dwipe signifies island,) placed at the four cardinal points. Pourgwevidehé at the west, Giambu at the north, Aprigodani at the east, and Uturu Kurudiveine at the south. wevidehé is in the form of a half moon, and is inhabited by people whose faces are shaped like a half moon. It is seven thousand yoduns in circumference, and is surrounded by 500 islands, each of them one hundred yoduns in circuit. Giambu is the earth we inhabit. It is of a triangular form, and is divided into two parts; that in which men immediately live is seven thousand yoduns in circuit; and the other, in which spirits only exist, is about three thousand. The elephants of the first class, which are 1,000,000,000 times stronger than those of the tenth, live also in this place, which is called Himalé Vani. It is besides the favourite residence of VISH-NU, of Isware, of \* NATHE, and several other great gods, who are there for the protection of the earth. It is surrounded by five hundred small islands. The small part, Himalé Vani, is of the same shape as the whole together, being triangular, the other part is a trapezium. They have all together 10,000 yoduns in circumference. As the triangle Himale Vani is three thousand yoduns, the Trapezium D D 4

<sup>\*</sup> The Nats are not known here, there is only a god called NATHS.

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must be about nine thousand; but the Singalese books make it but seven thousand, which cannot be the case, geometrically, even supposing a triangle carried to its extreme length. But arithmetically, seven and three are ten, which is all that is necessary to satisfy the Boudhists of the present day. habitants of \* Giambu, our earth, have a triangular head, which, however paradoxical it may appear, is clearly proved by the learned Singalese to be the case, by lines which they trace on their own faces. Giambu is situated to the north of the system; around it are five hundred islands, one of which, Lanke, is the island of Ceylon. This island is guarded by four great gods; before, by VISHNU; behind, on Adam's peak, by SAMAN: RANDE Kou-MAREA, or KATREGAM, is on the right, and AVE-NAIKE on the left. The fore part, according to the Singalese, is De-undere, the hind part Adam's peak: on the right lies the pagoda of KATREGAM, and on the left Putaland. VISHNU has placed them thus: Apregodami is a country of a round shape, inhabited by men with round faces like the full moon, and by spirits of a particular description that are to be found no where else. It is situated in the east, is seven thousand yoduns in circumference, with five hundred islands round it. Uturukuru-diveine is in the south, of a square form; its inhabitants have square faces, they live there five hundred years, and there are five hundred little islands round it. As we have one day the prospect of being in one or other of these countries, the ladies, who may be shocked at the idea of having triangular faces, have at least the consolation to be able to choose in their next transmigration betwixt square faces, full moons, or half moons.

THE system of the world, or of the parts composing the world, which we have just described, is called Sakwelle. On the Maha Meru Pargwette are

Giambu Dwipe is as Zabudiba at Ava. Giambu is a tree, (Eu-

are four stones; the first between the north-east and north-west; the second between the north-east and south-east; the third between the south-east and south-west; the fourth between the south-west and north-west. The first stone is green, and reflects a green colour over the whole of that part of the Sakwelle which is opposite to it; even the inhabitants are green: we are these inhabitants. Our not perceiving this, is to be attributed to a defect in the organs of our sight; but holy persons, virtuous souls, see us as we really are. The second stone is red, and so is the corresponding space around it. The third stone is yellow, the colour of gold, and so is the space about it. The fourth is the colour of silver, as is its corresponding space. The sun that illumines Yougandere travels round its habitation; when it gives light to the north, the south is in obscurity, and vice versa. It will have been observed that there are eight Pargwettes, in the same manner that we should have eight planets, had not one been suppressed. Our Sakwelle appears to be divided into separate parts by the waters that are between the Pargwettes, but they all, though in different parts, There is an infinite unite themselves at their base. number of Sakwelles that touch one another by the points of their circumference. They are all of the same size. On account of their round space, there must be empty spaces between them, which form spherical triangles. These triangles are cold hells, called Lokonan, Tariké, Naraké. The hells that are hot, lie under the earth we inhabit, and are termed Avitchi Maha Naraké. There are thirty-six great hells, or Maha Naraké.

THE heavens are divided into three classes, the Kamelokes, the Brahmelokes, and the Arupelokes; amounting in all to twenty-six, and are placed one

above the other.

1. Tchat-

1. Tchattourmaharagikeié, which is 42000 yoduns in height, counting from its base to the top of! Mahameru Pargwette.

2. Taoutifeeie or Tretrinsak; this heaven is governed by SAKREIA.

3. Tamé, governed by SUIAMENAME. > Kamelokes.

4. Santhoupité, governed by Tos-SITE.

5. Nermane Jattie, governed by SOUNERMITTE.

6. Parenermitté, governed by WASA-WARTIE.

7. Brahmaparissetie.

8. Brahmaparoussittie.

9. Brahmekaiké.

10. Waredabeie.

11. (That name is forgotten in the Singalese manuscript.)

12. Abassareïé.

13. Paretchissoubeié.

14. Apemene Soubeié.

15. Soubekirne Soubeié,

16. Vehapeleié.

17. Assansateié.

18. Aviheïé.

19. Attapeié.

20. Soudasseié.

21. Soudassieié.

22. Aghenishtakeié.

Akassenan tchiateneié.

24. Vignanantchia.

25. Aghintchiniie.

26. Nenessanjagnianan

Brahmelokes,

Aroupelokes.

WHEN

When the Mahakalpe ends, that is, when the system of the worlds is overturned, and that all is in disorder, the heavens described by the numbers 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, are in a state of conflagration. Those numbered 13, 14, 15, 16, are laid waste by violent winds; and those numbered 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, are inundated. The heavens, called the Aroupelokes, are of a very extraordinary description; there are many living bodies without souls, or the soul is not the life; and there are souls without bodies, and yet are not spirits, besides several other things equally curious. As each of us may hope to see this when we transmigrate, I shall not give a further detail of it.

#### THEOGONY.

THERE are three kinds of Boudhous, the Laoutouras, the Passes, and the Arihats. There is nothing in the world superior to the Laoutouras. One of these is constantly in a Mahakalpe. If there be one, the Mahakalpe is called Sarakalpe; two, Mandakalpe; three, Warakalpé; four, Saramandekalpe; five, Mahabadre-kalpé. We are in this last, because it bears five Boudhous; four have already ended, having become Nivani. The fifth will finish with the present Mahakalpe\*. The first of these five

\* Sir W. Jones, in his Chronology of the Hindoos, vol. 2d of the Asiatic Researches, gives the names of seven Rishis, or holy persons, followers of Vaivaswata, Son of the Sun. Their names are Casyapa, Atri, Vasishtha, Viswamitra, Gautama, Jamadigny, and Biaradwaja. Among these seven names are to be found two of the five Boudhous, Kassiape and Gauteme. I think that the name of Maitri is corrupted into the word Wisivamitra. In the same treatise there is great mention made of Boudhou under the name of Boudha, whom Bagawatamut supposes to be of a colour between white and red. The author of the Amaracosha makes him to be son of Maya: it is said farther on, that he is the son of the moon, a male deity, and that he married Ila, daughter of Menu. From what is said in the Sanscrit books about Boudhu, I conclude that the Brahmins made his history intricate, in order to destroy the remembrance of bim.

five Boudhous was called KAKOOSANDE: the second KONAGAME; the third CASSIAPE; the fourth GAUTEME; he, by whose laws the world is governed, and will be governed for 2657 years to come, from the 1st of May 1801 of the Christian era. It is 2344 years since Boudhou became Ni-This era is called BOUDHOUVAROUSE: the fifth, the Boudhou to come, will be called MAITRI. He is actually in the heaven Santhoupitie. There has been a Laoutouras Boudhou, named DIPAN-KERE, who has done incredible things. He lived in a very remote Mahakalpe. Between him and Gau-TEME there were twenty-two Laoutouras. The Pusse Boudhous are very numerous; but none have ever existed in a Mahakalpe which has produced a Laoutoure.

THE Arihats are as numerous as the preceding ones; many of them were promoted by GAUTEME to be his guard, but they have all become Nivani. The last survivor of these inhabited the Wanny, the northern part of Ceylon, before he became Arihat. The Laoutouras owe their becoming Boudhous to their virtues. They transmigrated an infinite number of years before they obtained it. They were all animals, men, and even spirits or gods. Among these gods are all the Brahmes, and even MAHA BRAHMA himself. But in the spiritual hierarchy they are all inferior to the Boudhous. The state of a Boudhou is that to which every being should aspire: because, to become Nivani, one must first be a Boudhou of one of the three sorts. propensity to become Nivani proceeds from a dread that, in one of their infinite number of transmigrations, they may assume the shape and character of an uncleanly animal, or an inferior devil. MAHA BRAHMA is a god who has become such, after many transmigrations, and who is destined for the state of BOUDHOU; in the mean time, he is superior to all There can be but one MAHA Brahmes. BRAHMA

BRAHMA in the space of two Kalpes and a half; the present was servant to GAUTEME, and held the parasol over his head; SAKREIA is nearly of the same kind of gods as the Brahmes, but he is superior to MAHA BRAHMA. There have been many SAKREÏAS, though never more than one at a time; his residence is on the central stone of our system of worlds, MAHA MERU-PARGWETTE; he is always occupied in doing good: the books are filled with accounts of his functions. When a man, perfectly virtuous, is afflicted with physical or moral pain, this good king knows of it by a shock which he feels on his throne; he instantly approaches the unfortunate person, who is relieved on the spot, without seeing his benefactor. Four gods watch round his pargwette incessantly, each of whom has an army of beings subordinate to them, though not constantly with their masters. The first, VIRUPAKSHE, who commands an army of snakes; the second, DERTERATCHTRE, the chief of a whole race of Gouroulas, who are several hundred yoduns in height, and inhabit, as we have said before, Issedare Pargwette. The third, FAIFREVENNE, who commands the devils; the fourth, VIVUDE, chief of the gigantic spirits, called Rumbandé. Under the stone of SAKREÏA lives a devil, called Assuré, who watches the moment when the posts are not guarded, to attack SAKREIA. But the four Gods are immediately informed of it by means of their divine science, and the devil is instantly hurled back into his dungeon.

But to return to Gauteme Boudhou; he is generally called Saman Gauteme Boudhou Vahanse; the Lord Saint Gauteme Boudhou. It has been justly observed, that the Samonocodum of the people of Siam is the same as the Boudhou of the Singalese. But I do not know that the analogy in the names has as yet been observed. We see now that Samono and Saman resemble each other; and that Codom can be easily taken for Gauteme.

BOUDHOU.

Boudhou, in one of his three voyages to Lankadwipe, the island of Ceylon, left on the top of Jaman ale Sripade, Adam's peak, the print of one of his feet; but though I have been at great pains to find it out, I have not as yet been able to ascertain whether it was his right or his left foot: and I am convinced that it must be, universally, a matter of doubt, for all the feet of Boudhou that I have seen in the temples are so awkwardly made, that there is no distinguishing the little toe from the great one. There is also a print of Boudhou's foot at Siam, but from the accounts of travellers, it is equally uncertain whether it is his right or his left: it suffices to know, that it is the mark of Boudhou. This not being doubted by any of the Singalese, the very good christians excepted, to whom the Portuguese priests have clearly proved that this is the mark of ADAM's foot. The Boudhists of Ceylon, however, discredit the account of Boudhou having stridden from Siam to Ceylon, having one of his feet at each of these places at the same time. As Boudhou was but eighteen cubits high, it is a thing impossible according to their own tenets.

GAUTEME BOUDHOU was the son of a king of GIAMBU DWIPE, called SOUDODENE MAHA RAGIA, whose kingdom was one of those seven large stones that I have not been able to learn the names of; his mother was called MAYA, or rather Maha MAYA. He was there known under the name of Prince SIDHARTE; he had a son by his wife JASSODERA DEVI, who was called RAHOULE, and who succeeded to the throne on the death of his father. Having in vain attempted, during four asankes, more than a hundred thousand mahakalpes, to become Boudhou, he at last made himself a pilgrim. At the end of six years pilgrimage, an account of which is given in a large volume, he became Boudhou; in fortyfive years after, Nivani; having established an order of things in this Mahakalpe, which is to last for for five thousand years; after which, there will be several changes in the present system; long wars and a successive diminution in the lives of men, till they are reduced so low as not to continue beyond five years; and every one will commit, during this short space of time, unheard crimes. A terrible rain will sweep from the face of the earth all except a small number of good people, who will receive timely notice of the evil, and will avoid it. the wicked, after being drowned, will be changed into beasts, till at length MAITRI BOUDHOU will appear, and will establish a new order of things; he is now alive for the last time but one, and inhabits one of the superior heavens. It is known that he will be born for the last time in the kingdom of Ka-His father will be SOUBRAMANÉ, his mother BRAHME VETI-DEVI, his wife CHANDRE Moukhi (moon face), and his son, Brahme War-DENE MAITRI, will be 88 cubits in height, and be always surrounded by 100,000 Rahatans, a species of spirits not very remarkable in the celestial hierarchy, though tolerably powerful. It will appear from what I have said, that the present Mahakalpe will end in five thousand years, to commence from the day that Boudhou became Nivani; that a kind of CHAOS will succeed, and will continue till the appearance of MAITRI BOUDHOU. It is stated in some of the books, that the Mahakalpe will end with MAITRI. For my part, I dare not decide a question of so much importance, which might one day give rise to wars, if the Priests of Boudhou disputed; but luckily their views are limited to receiving peaceably the alms of charitable persons, and of covering their Idol every day with fresh flowers.

## THE HELLS.

I HAVE brought the reader to the end of Kalpé; but it is not fair that he should arrive there without first passing through the hells. Being in them, we shall

shall remain but a short time, as the diabolical system of the Singalese is so complicated that a long

narrative would only disgust the reader.

THE Hells are places of transmigration for the souls of those who have deserved punishment, and they transmigrate into different persons according to the weight of their offences. Wherever one may be in transmigrating, he is liable to be a devil, which is certainly a punishment; for though there is power, there is also misery attached to the state of a devil. The Preteio devils for instance, which are the most numerous, are wretched beings, who, though constantly hungry, have not any thing to eat; and being always about us, are but too happy if we afford them food by spitting or blowing our noses. They are the only devils who do us no harm. All the others find a pleasure in rendering us unhappy, by causing our illnesses. This has led to the use of Bales, which are, however, prohibited by Boudhou; we shall speak of them hereafter. ISVARA and VAISSEVENE, two powerful gods, keep all the devils subordinate to them in as much order as possible, but they are not always in time to prevent the effects of their malice.

## CHRONOLOGY.

We have already given the opinions of the Boudhists about the antiquity of the world, together with their truly wonderful chronological calculations. We shall hereafter give an extract from the book of Ragia Paskemoodilliar, chief of the cast of Saleas, in which there are curious details on this subject. At present we shall touch on a chronology that approaches somewhat nearer to our understanding. We shall not speak of the history of Boudhou, a part of which is contained in 550 volumes, each relating to the history of one transmigration only. We intend to give a copy of some of the paintings on the walls of the pagodas, with their explanation.

planation. It is, however, at present sufficient to establish, that on the 1st of May 1801, there will have been 2344 years since Boudhou became Nivani; but not as some ignorant Singalese state, since he was born for the last time. Boudhou knew (from his great knowledge) that the descendant of a Lion would attempt the conquest of Ceylon.—As there were then seven hundred devils remaining, who had escaped destruction when Boudhou made great havoc among them in one of his journeys through the Island, he thought proper to avail himself of the destiny of this hero in order to destroy these 700 devils.—He accordingly ordered Vishnou to afford him every assistance towards the success of his project.—Boudhou became Nivani, and seven days after, VIGE KUMAREIA, the hero, departed and arrived at Ccylon with 700 giants, which Vishnou had procured for him, and a sanctified girdle, and a species of holy water which SAKREIA had made him a present of. The following is the genealogy of VIGE KUMAREIA. VAGOORAGIA, the husband of his grandmother, was a descendant from the Sun, king of Vagouratté, and father of a girl who had a connection with a furious Lion, the scourge of the country. This connection produced SINHEBAHOO, Ku-(SINHE means Lion). VAGOO was never sufficiently powerful to destroy this Lion. He ordered SINHEBAHOO, (the only one in his kingdom sufficiently strong to fight with this Lion) to attack SINHEBAHOO, after repeated menaces from VAGOORAGIA, at length determined to enter the lists with the Lion, his father, attacked and killed In consequence of this, he acquired a title to the crown of VAGOO, and on the death of VAGOO, obtained it, and added to it that of LATESINHE. VIGE KUMAREIA, who, we have already said, debarked on Ceylon, was his son. He landed at Tamme in the Wanney, and lay down to rest with his 700 EE giants

giants under a \* Bogaha tree, which sheltered them all. There was at that time in Ceylon, a female devil, who had three breasts, and who knew when one of those fell it would be the sign of a powerful stranger having arrived in the Island, who would marry her. This breast fell, she immediately disguised herself, as a bitch, and went in quest of the stranger. Having found him, she smelt his feet, and retired. VIGE judged, from seeing the bitch, that there must be inhabitants at no great distance. He sent his giants to reconnoitre; these, misled by the bitch, whom they followed, found themselves suddenly on the borders of a lake, into which they were all plunged. Vige having waited their return in vain for a long time, suspected they had met with a misfortune, and marched forward in expectation of hearing of them. He arrived-also on the borders of the lake, where he found a beautiful woman, 'called KUVENI. This was the same devil he had seen disguised as a bitch. He suspecting that she had hid his giants, without hesitating, seized her by the hair, and threatened her with the most dreadful vengeance if she did not deliver them up to him. consented on condition that VIGE would marry her. He not having a woman at the time with him, and she being beautiful, agreed, and took the oath accordingly. At this instant the giants sprung out of the waters in the same state as they had entered them-Kuveni then informed him that all the devils of the Island inhabited two villages near the lake, and that she would enable him to destroy them all, if he pleased. - VIGE immediately accepted the proposal. Kuvent changed herself into a mare; VIGE mounted her and darted blows on every side wherever she brought him. This he did with so much success, that in a few hours he killed all the devils in the Island, except one. This one is still in Ceylon, and does a great deal of mischief. probably, the one that a well known traveller, (Knox) (Knox) proves by an irresistible argument, that he has heard at different times.—Vige then, finding himself master of the Island, took the title of Vige Ragia, and the inhabitants that of Sinhale (friends of the Lion) out of compliment to Vige. This is the origin of the word Singalese (as we call it). Vige Ragia was the first of the line of kings, descendants of the Sun. It has been mentioned that he was the grandson of a Lion on his father's side: But as his grandmother was a descendant of the Sun, it is sufficient reason why he should be considered of that race. Also, since his time, all the kings of Lanka Dwipe (since called Ceylon from Sinhale,) have taken the title of sons of the Sun.

IT will appear from what we have said, that VIGE RAGIA arrived in Ceylon on the 7th of May, 543 years before the coming of Christ. I do not know upon what authority VALENTINE states his arrival in the year 106 of Jesus Christ, 649 years after the statement made by the most authentic writers. He is in another error, when he declares him to have reigned only thirty years; the Singulese being all agreed, on the authority of the MAHAVANSE, the SASSENANVANSE, and the RAGIA VALLIE, that he reigned thirty-eight; but they vary in their accounts of the time of reigning and the number of the following kings. I have before me seven or eight lists of their kings, not one of which agree. - The first extracted from the MAHAVANSE, the second from RAGIAVALLIE, the third from SASSENANVANSE, the fourth and fifth are Dutch manuscripts, the sixth is VALENTINE's the seventh RAGIA PAKSES MOO-DILLIAR of Saleas, who has attempted to reconcile the different statements of the other authors, but (as he himself allows) to no purpose.—About twenty years ago, a learned priest passed several months in the archives of the king of Candia, to ascertain these and other points relative to the Island. work he has written is much esteemed, and great reliance placed on its exactness; notwithstanding which, I have found out an error of one year in following his chronological calculation. I have only seen the latter part of the work. The author's name is TIBOUWAVE NAIKE OUNANSE. He gives an account of 206 kings (exclusive of the king then on the throne) whose aggregate reigns amount to 2400 years. But it would be necessary to see the whole of TEBOUAVE's work, before we can come to a positive conclusion on the chronology of the Island .--I hope soon to get possession of it. I am pretty confident it will clear up several historical as well as chronological statements: though the history of the kings anterior to RAGIA SINHE, who lived 170 years ago, hardly contains more than their names. There are nevertheless a few interesting facts, of an ancient date, mentioned by TEBOUAVE, such as that DIVENIPATISS was the first king who introduced writing in the Island. He lived in the year 222 of BOUDHOU VAROUSSE, and 321 before Jesus Christ.

#### KINGS.

#### SUCCESSION TO THE THRONE.

A SINGALESE cannot be king of Ceylon, that is, every person born of a Singalese father or mother, is excluded from the throne; the reason given for this is, that no Singalese can prostrate himself before one of his own nation.—The son of a Singalese woman is considered as of the same country as his mother, though his father should belong to a different nation. They lie on their bellies only before kings, but as no Singalese has ever been a king, they could not prostrate themselves in that manner before a king of their nation, as he would be the first of the new race. One PATTHIEBANDARE descendant of kings on the father's side, but of a Singalese mother, usurped the crown; he was shortly after massacred.

THE king may have as many women as he pleases, who are not considered as concubines when they live in the palace; but the issue of a royal race can alone pretend to the crown. These are called Princes, Kumareia..

THE eldest son generally succeeds to the throne; but if he be disqualified on account of irreligion, bad morals, or want of understanding, the least objectionable of his brothers is made to supersede him. If the king have not male issue, one of his relations is chosen to succeed him; and if he have not these, an offer of the crown is made to some prince on the

continent professing the Boudhou religion.

THE courtiers, holding the principal offices, decide, conjointly with the inhabitants of six cantons called Ratte Paha, all claims to the crown. confirm or annul the nomination of the late king, and in the latter case elect another, who is generally considered as the lawful sovereign, provided the electors have followed the written laws on the subject of election, and that the fundamental conditions of being of a royal race, and of the religion of Boudhou, have been adhered to.

THE election is of course subject to be decided by intrigue. The first minister or others may influence the vote of the Ratapahe, and intimidate the rest.

# COUNCIL of the KING. DECREES.

THE council of the king is composed of all the grandees of the court, that is to say, of two ADI-KARES, the great DESSAVES, or collectors, and the MAHA MUTTIA, or chief secretary. The priests of the first class appear there also, when particularly invited. The decisions are not carried by plurality of votes; the king listens to his council, and then decides as he pleases. Priests can only give their opinions on the private conduct of the king, and

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on subjects of religion. In cases of war or revenue, it is strictly forbidden them to utter a word. A Dutch manuscript, written about twenty or twentyfive years ago, asserts that the king cannot punish with death; but this is a mistake. He is absolute in his kingdom; and, in fact, is the only person who can condemn to death, which he can do without even passing seutence, for he can inflict it with his own hand.

RAGIA SINHE, having been abandoned by sixty of his guards, at the moment he was engaged with a fierce wild boar, revenged himself of their cowardice by running his lance through every one of thei The Dessaves are judges in their respective provinces, but they have not the power of inflicting a punishment that, may lead to the death of the delinguent. Where the offence is very weighty, the criminal is stripped of his all, and the judge appropriates it to his own use.

#### TEMPLES.

THE temples of Boudhou are called Vihari, which signifies a house; but its received meaning is, the house of Boudhou, in the same manner as the term Kumareia, which means son, is only applied to the son of a king by a princess. These temples have no certain form, being generally built in the caves of rocks. And it depends upon the particular form of the cave, whether the statue of Boudhou be standing, or sitting with its legs across, or lying down on its right side. This statue is invariably yellow, from the head to the feet. A large yellow garment covers the whole body, except his right breast. This garment is lined with red; the only part of the lining to be seen is that which is folded and thrown over the left shoulder. Boudhou has bracelets, like all the Indian figures; his head is naked, his hair neatly 1 neatly plaited from the fore to the hind part of his head, at the top of which is a flame, which, in statues of eighteen cubits, is three feet two or three inches in height. There are generally figures of some of the divinities painted on the walls of the temples; and these figures, in the richer ones, are made of earth or wood. Those of Boudhou may be made of any kind of materials. Devout people make offerings to the temple in gold, silver, brass, or even stuffs. It is an homage to the memory of Boudhou, for which a recompence is expected

in this life, and not in the other.

On one side of the Vihari there is always a monument, in the form of a cupola, placed on a moulded pedestal. This monument contains a particle of the bones of Boudhou: it is rather difficult to conceive whence all these particles have come, as his body was burned on a pile of sandal wood one hundred and fifty cubits high. This cupola is called Dageb Vahansé. Da bone, Geb belly, Vahanse ord. is clear that the word belly is here used in a metaphorical sense. Vahanse is a term applicable to every thing that creates respect. The priests live close to the Vihari. Their habitations should be humble, and covered only with leaves. This has given rise to their being called Pans-elé, house of leaves. Abuses have, however, crept in among them, and tiles are seen to their houses instead of leaves.

#### PRIESTS.

The priests are all dressed in yellow: their garment is large and folded back, like that of Boudhou, on the left shoulder, leaving the right breast and shoulder uncovered. They are torbidden tomarry, or to have concubines. They cannot touch meat, vegetables and eggs being their sole diet. They are not to eat after twelve o'clock, and must

be three months during the year away from their ordinary habitation. They differ in their opinions as to the cause of this regulation. It appears to me to have been made for the purpose of spreading their doctrines more generally, as they are obliged to preach whenever there is an assemblage of the faith-They live partly on the produce of the lands annexed to the temples, but more particularly by the alms they receive, in raw or boiled rice, vegetables, pastry, clarified butter, or ghee, &c. &c. They must clean out their temples twice a day, and always keep at least one lamp lighted in them. Every morning they are to spread fresh flowers on the statue or pedestal of Boudhou, and must have music both morning and evening. There are only two orders of priesthood, the novices, and the ordained; the first are called Saman Eroo Ounanse. They can be novices from their puberty, if they know how to read a little, and have some knowledge of the precepts of their religion. Previous to their admission, they are examined, and it depends on their answers whether they gain their object. They are asked whether they are afflicted with the falling sickness, or the leprosy; if they be hermaphrodites; whether they have been born slaves; if their parents be alive, and if they have obtained their consent to embrace the priesthood; with several other questions.

At twenty years of age they can be ordained, that is, become Tirounnanse. Questions are then put to them so numerous as to fill a small book. Previous to becoming a candidate, the novice must provide himself with eight things, which are indispensably necessary towards admission. A wooden plate for his food; three different yellow garments; a stick, for no other purpose than to enable him to walk; a round fan, called Watapete, to hide his face when he speaks; a coarse sack to filter his water; and a needle to mend his garments. There is a law that makes

makes all the *Tirounnanses* equal in rank. But this law not having been sufficiently attended to, it has been necessary to establish chiefs among them, to inspect the temples in a certain district. These chiefs are called *Naike Ounnansé*. A little after, there were two inspectors general made of all the temples in the island, they are called *Mahanaike Ounnanse*: they reside at *Candy*. At present there is but one who enjoys a great reputation for sanctity.

#### MARRIAGES.

THE author of the Dutch manuscript I have already alluded to, says, that the law forbids brothers to have one woman in common; but he is deceived. There is no such law: no notice of any such custom is taken in the antient law, and there is no modern one yet. This custom prevails very much in Candy,

and, to say the least, is tolerated.

In all suits relating to marriage, this custom is considered legal, and must have resulted from the manner in which the marriage ceremony is performed in *Ceylon*. A whole family goes in a body to ask a girl in marriage; the more numerous the family, the greater title it has to the girl: It is the whole family that marries, consequently the children belong to the whole family, in the same way as the

lands, which are never divided.

It is probable that his Excellency, the Governor, will bring about a reform in this kind of marriages, and place them on a more natural footing, by encouraging agriculture, and ordering a division of lands, for the purpose of establishing, every where, a sole proprietor—Marriages, in Ceylon, are contracted by the right thumb of the man and woman being put together, the priest throwing a little water over their thumbs, and pronouncing the words laid down by Boudhou for the occasion.

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The king is married in the above way, but a shell of the sort called *Chank (Buceinus)* must be procured to pour the water from, with the aperture to the right; such shell is the principal piece in the valuables of the crown. Their religion authorizes them to have many wives; a man may have as many wives and concubines as he can maintain.

WHERE a young man and woman are well disposed to marry each other, the family of the man sends a friend to that of the woman, to sound the intentions of the other party. In general, the girl's family receives notice of it, and accordingly gives a feast to their guest. A few days after, one of the nearest most aged relations of the young man pays a visit to the girl's family. He informs himself relative to her character and circumstances, and if he be satisfied, purposes an alliance. To this he receives no answer; but they treat him with a much greater feast than the former, which is generally a sign of consent. The next day, a relation of the girl comes to visit the family of the young man; he receives a grand entertainment in his turn. He inquires particularly about the number of the familytheir circumstances, &c. and declares, that if the young pair are satisfied, it would be well to consent to their marriage. The young man and his family immediately go in a body to demand the girl, which. is acceded to. A magician is then consulted, to fix the day and the hour. The two families then meet at the house of the girl, where a grand feast is prepared, and the house ornamented according to the custom of the cast. The magician consults his books, and holds a Clepsydra (or water clock) in his hand. The instant the lucky hour arrives, the married couple is covered with a piece of cloth, their right thumbs are joined, filtered water is thrown over them, a cup, containing cocoa milk, is passed several times over their heads, and the ceremony ends. The couple immediately rid themselves of the

the cloth and retire into a room, where there is a white bed strewed with flowers, precious stones, &c. The magician holds the water clock in his hand, and knocks at the door when the lucky hour arrives. The couple re-appear, and the rejoicings, in dancing, singing and feasting, commence, which last twenty-four hours, after which the married pair are conducted in triumph to the house of the husband. These are the customs observed in Candia when only one man is married. But when there are several brothers married to the same woman, the only part of the ceremony rigorously adhered to is, the joining the thumb of one of the men to that of the woman. The other part of it may be dispensed with.

PROSTITUTION, as a profession, is permitted: it is even respected, and is called Vaissia Darmi. Darmi means trade, state, employment. It is, however, liable to some very inconvenient restrictions. man appear before a woman of the above description, and declare he will marry her, giving her at the same time a ring, a flower, or some other thing, as a token of his sincerity, she must remain faithful to him, though he should abandon her for years, and leave her without the means of subsistence. SAKREIA one day transformed himself into an old man, and going to a Vaissia, to try her, made her the necessary declaration, gave her a flower, and disappeared. At the end of twelve years, the poor woman, whowith the greatest difficulty had supported herself, prayed to heaven in a strain of grief, that he who had given her the flower she then held in her hands might return. At that instant SAKREIA appeared in all his glory, congratulated her on her fidelity, and blessed her with affluence.

## DIVORCE.

DIVORGE can take place without any form or process,

cess, at the will of the parties. If the husband or husbands be not satisfied with their wife, he or they return her the effects she has brought in marriage, and repudiate her. In the same manner, if the woman be discontented, she insists on withdrawing herself, and returns whatever she may have received in marriage. When the parties are not agreed as to the divorce, the Judge or Dessaye interferes, and generally annuls the marriage when he cannot reconcile them.

## DRESS.

THE dress of the grandees of the court, is not so majestic as that of the Turks or Persians, nor so elegant as that of the Indians; yet it is striking and pleasing. The hip is covered with a large coloured cloth descending and folded in such a way before, as to prevent any obstruction to the motion of the legs; this cloth is called Pano: Over this, they wear a kind of petticoat of fine muslin (called Joupeti) with a gold border folded up in the way of the cloth. A box made of paste-board is placed round their bellies, the projection of which it increases five or six inches. This box contains a handkerchief, watch, and other little articles. Their servants always carry their betel, chunam, and nuts of areka. A large sash with a gold border ties up the whole: it is called Ottou Katchie. The upper part of the body is covered with cloth worked in gold, or variegated silk, or plain white muslin. The sleeves are always stuffed above with cotton, in order to make the higher part of the arm appear thick. This they call Otte. Over their shoulders is a large ruff, in the Spanish fashion, which they call Maute. On their heads they wear a small round hat, which they call Topi Raloue; it is made of paste-board, and is covered with a piece of red cloth having a gold border, and sometimes of white muslin. This dress appears to have been partly introduced

introduced by Europeans. The ruff and coat are to be seen in many of the portraits of the 16th and 17th centuries; and the covering over their hips, resembles the large Dutch breeches of those days. They have two kinds of slippers, one made of leather or ornamented cloth, and turns at the end; the other is a piece of wood, about the size of the foot, raised from the ground by the means of two supporters a few inches in height; near the end of it are two small curves, between which they place the great toe. They never use slippers where there is ceremony.

Those that are of an inferior rank to the first class of courtiers, only wear the lower part of the dress; it being strictly forbidden them to cover the upper part of the body.—The Vellale cast has the privilege of wearing a white hat.—The petty chiefs of the other casts can wear black hats.—The people of low cast cannot wear a petticoat, but simply a piece of white cloth, which is not to reach below the knees.—

Their head is uncovered.

THE women of the lower orders wear a petticoat of white cloth, which passing between their legs, is thrown over the right shoulder, and is fastened to the ligature about the waist: It has a very pretty effect. This is the dress in Candy. - In that part of the island which is under the European dominion, the black chiefs wear a kind of embroidered surtout, with an immense quantity of large buttons of gold or silver on it.—The women wear a quilted vest of the very worst taste. The Singalese use a large leaf of the Talegaha tree to shelter them from the rain; it is called by Europeans talipot\*. - It is made to fold up like a fan. Another species of fan is used in Candy; it is a leaf of the same tree, its folds are open, and form a wheel, which is fastened to a stick seven or eight feet in length .- It is only used to keep off the Men in place alone, are entitled to the benefit of it. There is another fan of the same shape, but smaller, called Wattapetie, which serves the same purpose as fans in Europe. - The priests generally carry them.

### CASTS.

THE Singalese are divided into four principal casts,

That of the Kings-RAGIA.

That of the Brahmins. That of the Velendes. That of the Tchouderes.

The two first casts do not exist in Ceylon. That of the Kings, is divided into TCHRESTRI RAGIA VANSE, LITCHWI RAGIA VANSE, AKKAKE RAGIA VANSE.

The Brahmins distinguish the Vedebrahmine Vanse, as persons to be solely employed in matters of religion, and in the study of abstract sciences; other Brahmins as doctors of physic, and a third class as manufacturers of silks and stuffs.

THE Velende cast is divided into Velende Vanse, and Wadighe Vanse, commonly called Tehetis. - The TCHOUDERES comprise all inferior casts; white people and vedas are of no cast. But as all these are the casts of ancient and fabulous times, they can only be said at present to exist in books.

THE following is the order of casts in Candy.

FIRST, Vellal or Goi Vanse. - The Vellales were originally labourers, as will appear from the signification of the words; vel means a marshy field, fit for the cultivation of rice, ale is desire, fancy, love .-Vellale therefore signifies, the attachment of people of that cast to places fit for the cultivation of rice. They were also called goi-game, from goi labourer and game villages. They probably took this name when they united themselves into a small society,

and established themselves in the same place. One would be induced to suppose that such a cast must have had its origin in very remote times.—But we find no mention of it in the ancient books.—This little society having increased in power and in numbers, the general term of goi-gamé was dropped, and every one took that of goi-vanse, meaning the lord labourer.—The Goi-vanses or Vellales form the first cast in Candy. They alone can hold the high offices of the state. Two casts dispute the second rank, namely, the fishermen, and the Challias.—The fishermen or Karave cannot be of much importance in Candy, as the Candians at present can only fish in the rivers of that kingdom.

THE origin of the Salé\* or Challias is accounted for in the following manner: A certain number of Passekarea Brahmin Vahanse went to live together in a large house on the continent, to carry on a mafacture of stuffs. This house was called Salé, and increased to such a size as at last to become a village, which gave rise to the name Salé-gamé, that was afterwards given to its inhabitants.-A great number of them were invited over to the Island by three different Kings, VIGE RAGIA, DEVENIPATISSE, and Though at first much esteemed, they had WATIMI. not an opportunity of constantly exercising their talents; the consequence was, these decreased from not being sufficiently employed, their influence fell, and they became labourers, goi. - In the reign of WATI-MI, they found an opportunity of distinguishing themselves in another way. The Portuguese had just arrived in the Island, and wanted men to peel the:

<sup>\*</sup> Is not this the name  $\sum \alpha \lambda i \kappa \eta$  which Ptolemy gives to the Island of Ceylon, as he does that of  $\sum \alpha \lambda \alpha i$  to the inhabitants? This cast of cinnamon peelers is settled in the southern districts of the Island, and forms the principal part of the population in the neighbourhood of Point de Galle.

the cinnamon. They proved themselves in a short time so useful to the Portuguese, who valued nothing in the Island but the cinnamon, that they received the title of Maha Badé, the great department, preserving always the name of salé without the addition of gamé. They extended over a tract of country forty or fifty leagues in length. Some time after, the termination as, was given to many casts, such as the Panneas, Hounas, &c. and in the same way, to the cast of Salé, which then became Saléas, by corruption Tchalias. ADRIAN RAGIA PAKSE MOODILLIAR of Saleas, has written a very curious work on the subject of his own cast, in which, several interesting accounts relative to Boudhism are also to be found. I shall give, farther on, from his book, an extract made by himself.

Next to the Saleas and Káraves, are the Jagregors. Their employment is to extract from the cocoa tree, from the kitoul and the talgaha, a liquor with which they made black sugar.—The Hounas are lime makers.—The Navandana work in gold, silver, cop-

per and iron.

The Dourave or Sourave, are those who draw the juice from the palm trees, in the same way as the Jagreros. They make of this juice Souri or Foddya liquor, which they ferment and then distil, by which means it becomes arrack. The Europeans call them Shandos.

THE Radave.—Washermen of the first cast. They wash for the preceding casts, but not for the following.—They are obliged to hang white cloth in the houses which travellers stop at, whenever a person of importance is to pass by.

THE Kinnavas. - Winnowing fan makers.

THE Jamale, who are to work in the iron mines. There are very few people of this cast.

THE Radeas.—Washermen of the second class.

Bereveïas.—This cast includes all the players on musical instruments, and those who beat the different kinds of drums.

Ollias, the dancers and the mimics. The first are obliged to be on the road when great people pass by, and accompany the palanquin, for a length of time, by their extravagant steps, which they call dancing. The mimics put on a mask of the devil Rakseia, who is very formidable here, and dance with the mask on, in order to appease him.

THE Padouas are carriers of every kind. The Galle gane palleas, those who are charged with

cleaning the streets.

THE Rodi, or Rodias, are the last and vilest of all the casts. If one should touch a Rodias even unintentionally, one is rendered impure. wretches are obliged to throw themselves on the ground on their bellies whenever they see a vellala passing, who gravely walks over them. But nature seems to have come to the relief of these unfortunate beings, by giving to them more beautiful women than to any of the other casts. But many of them are forced into the harams of the great, who have laid "it down as a rule, that a Rodias woman is not impure for the men of superior casts, but only for their wives. This is the order at present of the different casts in Candy. It is, however, probable, that formerly the order of casts in this island was not as it now is, but as it exists on the continent. be considered singular, that there is not a military But the reason of it is, that all the population belonging of right to the king, every one, let his rank be what it may, is obliged to fight on receiving the king's order. By this means he has as many soldiers in time of war as he can procure arms for. This order of casts is strictly observed in Candy. But no individual suffers in the opinion of his cast in doing for himself any work that may be within the particular line of another cast. Therefore a

Vellale may wash his own linen, or fish for his own table; neither is a Vellale degraded for cultivating the ground of a man of inferior cast; in the same way as a Navandane may make a working tool for a Rodias: for there are not two species of Vellales nor of Navandanes. But, as there are two kinds of washermen, a Radave would think it beneath him to wash for a Bereveias. In the part of the island belonging to the English there is a difference in the casts, but so confused as to make it difficult to give an exact idea of them; the precise line between them not having been drawn in this part of the island. For the last twenty years, the Salegame, or Saleas, or Mahabade have lost, with their privileges, the priority which their greater utility entitled them to over the Vellales. There is also another class of inhabitants, of whom many authors have spoken, without knowing any thing about them. They are called Bedas or Vedas. The Bedas are of no cast; but they are not considered as impure, and enjoy, as a body, a certain degree of consideration. They inhabit the woods, and live They feed principally on the game up in the trees. they kill with their arrows, and have the reputation of being good archers. Their bows are remarkably Their arrows have a piece of iron difficult to draw. at the end, six or eight inches long, and about one and a half broad. With these they can kill an elephant by striking him between his eyes, a thing very possible from the construction of the bone about that part. When a Veda wants an iron lance, or a tool, which is nearly the only thing he may stand in need of that he cannot procure for himself, he places in the night, before the door of a smith, some honey or game, together with a model of the instrument he requires in wood or earth. or two after, he returns and finds the instrument he This good faith and reciprocal conhas demanded. fidence prove, at least, that some honesty exists in a country

a country where swindling and robbery are carried to a great excess. They would consider themselves extremely criminal if they cheated a Beda, who, from his way of living, can never impose upon them. Once a year the Vedas send two deputies with honey and other little presents to the king. When they arrive at the gate of the palace, they send word to his majesty that his cousins wish to see him. They are immediately introduced. They then kneel, get up, and inquire of the king, rather familiarly, about his health. The king receives them well, takes their presents, gives them others, and orders that certain marks of respect be shewn them on their retiring from the palace. These Vedas are black, like all the Singalese, notwithstanding all that has been said to the contrary. They inhabit the Wanie.

#### DEATHS.

IT is recommended by the laws of Boudhou to recite some chapters on mortality near a dying man, in which the name of Boudhou frequently recurs. If the dying man expire at the instant this name is repeated, his soul is transported into one of the heavenly regions. The law ordains that the body be burnt: but this custom has not been preserved, except among the great. The people entertain an idea that the dead defile a place: they, therefore, get rid of the body immediately by burning it, or carrying it to the neighbouring forest. The house, in which a person may have died, is always deserted for some months, sometimes for ever. The water of the sea is the best to wash away the impurity: and where this cannot be had, they use the water of a stream, cowdung and curcuma. The following custom fills one with horror, particularly as the only cause of it is idleness: - When a sick man is despaired of, the fear of becoming defiled, or of being obliged to change their habitation, induces those about him to take him into a wood, in spite of his cries and his groans, and there they leave him, perhaps, in the agonies of death. It frequently happens that men, thus left, recover and return to their families, without entertaining the smallest resentment towards their assassins. This atrocious custom is common in the poorer provinces of the kingdom of Candy.

## MUSIC.

Music appears to have been formerly cultivated in Ceylon, and reduced into principles. There are pieces of music to be seen in regular notes, in some of the old books in the Pali tongue. The ancients had seven notes, called Sa, Ri, Ga, Me, Pa, De, Ni. The gamut was termed Septa Souere. There was no particular sign for these notes; each of them being formed of as many letters as were necessary for their pronunciation. It is very probable that this gamut answers exactly to ours, consequently this would be the way that the beginning of an old minuet, known to all the world, would be written in Singalese music; pa ni-ri pa ri sa ni dé pa, pa pa pa pa pa pa.

But as their music, in notes, has been almost entirely forgotten, I have not been able to discover how they used to distinguish the half tones, the crotchets, measures, &c. &c. I have heard that there are two or three persons in Candy, who still understand their music by note. But I hope yet to be able to collect something that may give an insight into the ancient music of the Singulese. It is in all probability the same as that of the Indians of the continent. Nothing can be more unpleasant than the Singulese airs, whether sung or played on either kind of their guitars. Their trumpet produces the most annoying sound I ever heard; yet they are fond

of it to distraction. They consecrate it to the temples and to the king. Its name is Hoveneve. Their. horn, called Kombove, is as unpleasant as the former. They have a kind of hautboy that is not quite as insupportable as their other instruments, and which might, perhaps, in the hands of an able player, be made to give some pleasing tones; it is termed Nalavé. They have four species of drums. The first Daoul is long and narrow. They beat it with a curved stick, called Daoul Kadipoue, and use only their left hand to it. The Tammetam is a kind of kettle covered with a skin on the top, and beat with an instrument called Kaddipow. The Rabani is nearly similar to our timbrel; but it has no bells. They slide the fingers of the right hand on it, and hold it with the left: women play on it also. They place it on the ground, and three or four together beat it in time for many hours together, without being in time. The Odikie is the best of all their drums, and is certainly capable of producing a good effect in a piece of music. It is very narrow considering its length. The two extremities of it are tied by catgut strings to the belt, on which the instrument hangs; this belt goes over the shoulder. They squeeze the drum occasionally with the left elbow, and strike it with their right hand. The pressure on the instrument, by stretching it more or less, makes it produce different tones. The Tammetam is used in the feasts of the great, and always precedes them in their journeys. It is a necessary part of the music to be played before the temple morning and evening. In fine, it is an essentially necessary instrument upon all occasions that attract the attention and consideration of the public. The Rabani is more adapted for the feasts of friends; the Daoul is used at all times. But the Odikie is the instrument of the men of taste. A player on it is, consequently, paid more liberally than those on the Daoul or Tammetam.

THE Singalese are very fond of hearing songs. great man, (when travelling,) has often one singer before and another behind his palanquin. They each in their turn sing stanzas of an indeterminate length; as it happens at times that the singer, animated by his subject, gives some verses extempore. songs are either religious, in which case they extol the virtues of Boudhou and other gods; or they are historical, and then they praise the virtuous actions of some of their kings, or relate a love adventure. In all cases the air of the songs is mournful. never heard what can be called gay music among the Singalese; and I think it would be very difficult to put any into note: for the measure is incessantly changing, and the movement remaining the same, It is what is generally called the analways slow. danté.

# Abridgment of the History of the Chalias, by Adrian Ragia Paksé, a Chief of that Cast.

1st. AFTER the world had been destroyed, and plunged into obscurity, a Brahmé descended from on high, and made it shine with his bright light.

2d. A GREAT number of other Brahmés descended at the same time, and inhabited the regions of the

air, where they enjoyed perfect happiness.

3d. One of these Brahmés, wishing to know the taste of the earth, pressed it between two of his fingers, and found it possessed of the sweetest flavour. From that time he and the other Brahmins fed on it for the space of 60,000 years, till dreading that it would be entirely consumed, from the great use they made of it, they divided it equally amongst them, that each might be sure of a certain portion; but the unfortunate idea of dividing it destroyed the delicious flavour of the earth.

4th. After which Chance produced a species of mushroom, called Mattika or Jessathow, on which they lived for 15,000 years. But being determined to make an equal division of this also, they lost it. Luckily for them, another creeping plant, called Badrilata grew up, on which they fed for 35,000 years, but which they lost for the same reason as the former ones.

5th. FORTUNE still remained true to them; for there grew up a large tree called Kalpéworksé, of which there is an immense number in Outourowkourowdwipe. This tree gave them food for 2,200,000 years. But the old idea having crept in among them, it perished.

6th. THEY afterwards lived on an odoriferous grain called Soiamgiate-el for 35,000 years, which

they lost for the same reason as their former.

7th. THEY then found another grain called Sowende, which served them as food for sixty thousand years, at the end of which they were deprived of it.

8th. These different kinds of food changed their nature; and from spirits they became matter in a human shape, having bones, flesh, and blood. And having imbibed wicked ideas, they became hermaphrodites, and communicated carnally with each other. The consequence was, that they lost all their

ancient glory.

9th. Some of these Brahmins disliking the method of living of the others, retired into the woods. There they divided themselves into three sets; one set gave itself the name of Vedé Brahminé, and took to the study of the four sciences, called Tehadourveda. This set is employed in teaching men virtue, and instructing them in a knowledge of the heavenly doctrine. Another set took the appellation of Same Brahminé, and it interests itself about the temporal concerns of men. The last set is called Peskaré Brahminé.

miné, and manufactures gold stuffs; this is the

meaning of Peskaré.

10th. THEY all assembled and reflected deeply on their ancient glory, which was so great as to have given light to the world: and they repented of the

sin which had plunged them into obscurity.

obtained a new light under the name of Souria (sun) which is fifty yoduns in circumference. This word, literally, is firmness and wisdom. At the time Vaivasvata (son of the sun) appeared in all his beauty and happiness. \* Thirty hours after, the sun set, and the light was turned into darkness. They again prayed, and obtained another luminary, called Chandria (moon), and which signifies reunion, and has forty-nine yoduns of circumference.

12th. Then they were obliged to labour for their bread, and they began to steal from one another. In this predicament they elected a chief, and agreed that whatever punishment he should decree, they would enforce. This chief was that splendid, beautiful, and perfectly happy being, the son of the sun. They called him MAHA SAMETTE, meaning the grand or unanimous election; and they appointed him king 4,320,000 years after the descent of the

Brahmes from the aërial regions.

Samette, the cast of kings, which has been divided into five casts equally eminent. The first, called Sourie Vanse; the second, Litché Viragie Vanse; the third, Katchieragie Vansé; the fourth, Sakeragia Vansé; the fifth, Okkakeragie Vansé. These five casts have always filled the station of sovereigns.

14th. THE Hermaphrodites, of whom we have spoken

<sup>\*</sup> The Singalese divide the nychthemeron into sixty hours, thirty for the day, and thirty for the night.

spoken (No. 8) produced two casts; the Velendes, who knowing nothing of agriculture, took to trade, and are now called Tchittes; and the Vadighé, distinct from the former, but also traders. All the other Brahmés were called Tchouderés, a general term for all inferior casts.

15th. MANY books, such as the Dampowoové, the Attouvavé, and the Nekalikavé speak of Peskare Brahmines who were kings. The book Sedipekave taken from the Southsethré, and the Sonnanameke, written by the king Melidow, establishes the order of casts in the following manner: Kings, Brahmines, Chittis, Grahapatis. Thirty-five Peskaré Brahmines were kings in the country of Damhedive (the continent) and the lands annexed to it, such as Makhandé, Mahapatoonu, Kasi, Gadahare, Kourow, and Souloupatounow. Here follows the manner in which Ceylon became inhabited. Ceylon is a small island, at a little distance from Dambedivé, about one hundred yoduns in circumference. It was for many years a savage island, and was inhabited by devils. A. descendant of the first king of Dambedivé MAHA-SAMETE arrived there. He was called VIGE KOU-MAREA, and was the son of VAGOWRAGIA. prince Vige had acted very unjustly towards his father's subjects. And his father, recollecting that BOUDHOU had foretold that his son VIGE would be king of Ceylon, made him embark with 700 giants, and ordered them all to go in search of the island of Ceylon. They departed with a fair wind for the mountain, Saman cle Sripade, which they perceived at a distance, and landed at Tamine in the Wany. VIGE destroyed all the devils, and cultivated the lands. He then sent large presents to the king of Paundi, whose daughter he demanded and obtained in marriage. The princess brought 700 young girls with her, and servants and artists of every description. The 700 giants married the 700 girls; VIGE wedded the princess, and declared himself king.

Some time after, VIGE RAGIA made other presents to his father-in-law, who, in return, sent him some Péskare Brahmines. VIGE received them well. granted them lands and honours, and they employed themselves in making magnificent gold stuffs for the king and queen. He died after thirty-eight years reign. The descendants of these Péskare Brahmines neglected the art, gave themselves up to agriculture, and lost the name of Péskare with their talent. While the king, DEVENIPETISSE, reigned in Ceylon, the king of Dambedivé, DHARMASOUKÉ, sent him the holy tree, called Snemahabodhiencahanse, and 100 Péskare Brahmines, on whom he heaped riches and honours. DEVENIPETISSE received them with attention, and granted them greater honours than they had received from DHARMASOUKÉ. The Péskares manufactured stuffs for the king, but, like their predecessors, soon lost their art, and took to agriculture. Another king of Ceylon, called VIGE SA-VAKKREMEBAHOW, (also called VATIMÉ, ) sent presents to the king Holle, and obtained several from him, and several Péskare Brahmines, to whom he gave rubies, pearls, elephants, lands, slaves, &c. The descendants of these are called Saleas Gamé. It is said in the book Saliegesoutré, that they lived in the village Saleagamé which means the village of houses or buildings. This village was afterwards called Chelow. This place gave the name afterwards to the cast: some Europeans shortly after arrived in Ceylon, who employed the Péskare Brahmines or Saleagamé to gather cinnamon. And as this was the most valable article in the island to the Europeans, they called the department which furnished it Mahabade. Bade signifies tax; therefore Mahabade means great tax.

It is certain that the Saleas, at present called Challias, descend from a very high cast, and that they have always been held in great estimation; having, except in late times, been constantly ex-

empted from paying taxes, and enjoyed great ho-

ALL that we have said is to be found in the following books.

## LIST OF BOOKS.

Dirghinekaie, or Diksanghie.—An extract from the laws of Boudhou. (Pali.)

Angothrinekaie. - Another extract more copious.

(Pali.)

Saniouthnikaie. - A collection of the writings of

Boudhou. (Pali.)

Giatekeathoovavé.—A very ancient description of the transmigrations of Boudhou, divided into 550 books. (Singalese.)

Sare Sangrehe.—History of Boudhou written by a wise man; very much esteemed. (Singalese.)

Darma Predipikave.—Darma signifies a collection of the laws of Boudhou. Predipikave demonstrates that the author is a doctor, (named Gouronlogomi;) it is a kind of commentary. (Sanscrit,) Pali, Singalese.

Soumanghele Vila Sininam othowave. - An explana-

tion of the sacred rejoicings. (Pali.)

Vanse Dipikave. - The candlestick of the higher casts: by a king named MILIDON.

Balavetare. - A grammar of the Pali language.

Balé ignorant; avetare that instruct.

Pali Nigandoo Sanné.—A Pali and Singalese dictionary. Nigandoo, dictionary; Sané, translated.

Pali Date-mangiusé. - A collection of Pali verbs.

Daté, verb; mangiusé, chest.

Pali Nigandoo. - A Pali dictionary.

Ragia Ratnakere.—History of the kings of Cey-

lon. Ragia, king; Ratnakere, sea.

Sarasvatti Viakarene Potte.—A Sanscrit grammar, the explanation of which is also in Sanscrit. Sarasvatti.

# 444 ON THE RELIGION AND MANNERS, &c.

vatti, the goddess of science; Viakarene, grammar;

Potte, book.

Pali Sabdemalave. A collection of Pali names declined, and translated in Singalese. Sabde, name; malave, chain.

Pane Daham Potte. Explanations of Boudhou. Pane, discourse; Daham, religion; Potte, book.

Poogia Vallie. History of offerings made to Boudhou. Poogia, offerings; Vallie, a creeping plant.

# CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE of the Moghal Emperors; from being from A. H

BY LEWI

Date and Place of Birth,

and Title.	Father's and Mother's Name:	Date and trace of Direct	
maeer Tymoor sidqiran, Fir- mmukan,	Father, Umeer Turagha,e,—Mother, Tukeenu Khanum.	Born in the town of Koo ban, Anno Hegiræ, 736—c Bulukh, Wednesday, 12th l	
eeranShah Ju- lddeen	Father, Umeer Tymoor.	Born in the city of Sumur Rubee oossanee, A. H. 769- 17th Shaban, A. H. 807, and Sumurqund.	
zza Sooltan ummud	Father, Meeran Shah,—Mother, Mihr nosh.	Born. Crowned 24th Zecqad, of Sumurquad.	
aan Uboosu'-	Father, Sooltan Moohummud Mirza.	Born A. H. 837, in the ci Crowned A. H. 855, in the	
tan Omur Mirza.	Father, Soolten Uboo su,eed.	Born in Indjan, in Sumur Crowned in Indjan, in Fu	
ooor, Zuheer- teen, Firduos tere.	Father, Oumur Shykh Mirza,— Mother, Qootlooq Nigar Khanum, daughter of Yoonus Khan, of the fa- mily of Chungez Khan.	Crowned between Indjan	
ma,yoon, cooddeen; Ashee,ance	Father, Baboor,—Mother, Mahum Begum, Grand-daughter of Uhmud Jam.	Born in the fort of Kabo qad, A. H. 913. Crowned at Ukburabad or ooluwwul, A. H. 937.	
ur, Julalood- Jirsh ashee,-	Father, Hooma, yoon, — Mothers Humeedu Banoo Begum, Grand- daughter of Uhmud Jam.	Born in the fort of Umur Lahor, Sunday, 5th Rujub, Crowned in the Eedgah K of Lahuor, Friday, 5th Rub	
nigeer, Noor	Daughter of Raja Biharee Mul.	Born in the town of Fu Scobu of Ukburabad, Wed coluwwul, A. H. 977. Crowned Thursday, 24 A. H. 1014, in the fort of U	
hace ance.	Father, Juhangeer,—Mother, Jot Ba,ee, Daughter of Raja Malduno, Boondela. CC-0. Gurukul Kangri University Haridwa	Crowned in the fort of	

vatti, the goddess of science; Viakarene, grammar;

Potte, book.

Pali Sabdemalave. A collection of Pali names declined, and translated in Singalese. Sabde, name; malave, chain.

Pane Daham Potte. Explanations of Boudhou. Pane, discourse; Daham, religion; Potte, book.

Poogia Vallie. History of offerings made to Boudhou. Poogia, offerings; Vallie, a creeping plant.

HRONOLOGICAL TABLE of the Moghal Emperors; from UMEER TYMOOR to ALUMGEER II. the Father of the present Emperor Shan Alum, being from A. H. 736 to 1173; or A. D. 1335 to 1760.

# BY LEWIS FERDINAND SMITH, Esq.

ac and Title.	Father's and Mother's Name:	Date and Place of Birth, and of Coronation.	Place and Date and Manner of Demise.	Piace of Inverment and Age, and Term of Reign.
neer Tymoor iqiran, Fir- mukan.	Father, Umeer Turagha,e,-Mother, Tukeenu Khanum.	ban, Anno Hegiræ, 736—crowned in the city of Bulukh, Wednesday, 12th Ramzam, A. H. 771.	Wednesday, 17th Shaban, A. Hi 807; died in the village of Ubrar, 70 fursungs from Sumurqund toward T,hutt,ha—Left 4 sons.	Interred in the environs of Sumurqund. Aged lunar years 70, 11, 22. Reigned lunar years 35, 11, 5.
eran Shah Ju- Heen	Father, Umeer Tymoor.	Born in the city of Sumurquad, Thursday, 14th Rubee cossance, A. H. 769—crowned Wednesday, 17th Shaban, A. H. 807, between Azoorba ejan and Sumurquad.	the battle with Mirza Y 005001 Loork	Interred in the garden of Da, ood, in the environs of Tubrez.  Aged l. years 40, 7, 10.  Reigned l. years, 2, 4, 10.
Sooltan	Father, Meeran Shah,—Mother, Mihr nosh.	Born. Crowned 24th Zeeqad, A. H. 810, in the city of Sumurquad.	Died A. H. 855, of bodily disease -Left 2 sons.	Interred in the town of Koosh, in the mausoleum of Shunis ooddeen Kular. Reigned i. years 45.
un Uboosu'-	Father, Sooltan Moohummud Mirza.	Born A. H. 837, in the city of Sumurqund. Crowned A. H. 855, in the city of Ghuzneen.	Killed Monday 22d Rujub, A. H. 873, in the battle with Husun Be Toorkman.—Left 9 sons.	Interred in the environs of Sumurqund. Aged I, years 36. Reigned I, years 18.
ann Omur Mirza.	Father, Soolten Uboo su, eed.	Born in Indjan, in Sumurqund, A. H. 860. Crowned in Indjan, in Furghanu, A. H. 873.	Killed Monday, 4th Rumzan, 89 A. H. by a fall from the house in fling pigeons.—Left 3 sons and 5 daug ters.	y- Aged I. years 39.
enn, Firduos	Father, Oumur Shykh Mirza,— Mother, Qootlooq Nigar Khanum, daughter of Yoonus Khan, of the fa- mily of Chungez Khan.	Crowned between Indjan and Koosh, 5th Rum	Died 6th Jumadee ooluwwul, A.  937, in the garden of Chihar Bag in Ukburabad, from bodily disease.  Left 4 sons and 3 daugiters.	Reigned I. years 49, 4, 1. Reigned I. years 37, of which he passed 5 years to days in Hindoestan.
ma,yoon, booddeen; Ashee,ance	Begum, Grand-daughter of Uhmud	Born in the fort of Kabool, Tuesday, 4th Zee qad, A. H. 913. Crowned at Ukburabad or Agra, 9th Jumadee, ooluwwul, A. H. 937.	A. H. o63, in directing the building	Aged I. years 49, 4, 9. Reigned I. years 25, 10, 23.
rish ashce,-	Father, Hooma, yoon, - Mother, Humeedu Banoo Begum, Grand- daughter of Uhmud Jam.	Born in the fort of Umur Kot, in the Soobu o Lahor, Sunday, 5th Rujub, A. H. 949. Crowned in the Eedgah Kulanor, in the Soobu of Lahuor, Friday, 5th Rubecoossance, A. H. 963	sance, A. H. 1014, from beday asses.—Left 3 sons.	Aged I. years 64, 11, 7. Reigned I. years, 52, 2, 9.
		Born in the town of Futihpoor Sikree, in the Soobu of Ukburabad, Wednesday, 17th Rubee, ooluwwul, A. H. 977. Crowned Thursday, 24th Jumadee, oossanee, A. H. 1014, in the fort of Ukburabad or Agra.	daughters.	Interred in the suburbs of Lahuor, in the garden of Noor Juhan Begum. Aged I. years 59, 11, 12. Reigned I. years 22, 9, 25.
Juhan, Shu- dden, Fir- here, anec.	Father, Juhangeer, Mother, Jos Ba, ee, Daughter of Raja Malduno,	Born in the city of Lahuor, Thursday, 30th Ru-	Dicti III the tare from	Interred at Ukburabad. Aged I. years, 76, 3, 11. Reigned I. years 30, 3, 26, nine years of which passed in prison in the fort of Agra.
CC-0. Gurukul Kangri University Haridwar Collection. Digitized by S3 Foundation USA				

Father's and Mother's Name.	Date and Place of Birth, and of Coronation.	Place and Date and Manner of Demise.	Place of Interment and Age, and Term of Reig	
220	Born in the town of Dohud, in the Soobu of Doojrat, Sunday 11th Zeeqad, A. H. 1028.  Crowned in the garden of U jzzabad, near Surind, Friday 1st Junadee joossanee, A. H. 1068.	Died in the Dukk, hin, Friday 28th Zeeqad, A. H. 1118, of bodily dis- easc.—Left four sons.	Interred in the court of the mausoleum of — Zynooddeen, in Khooldabad, 8 kos from the fundamental of Uorungabad.  Aged I. years 91, 13.  Reigned I. years 51, 5, 7.	
ner, Uorungzeb,—Mother, Ba- egum, daughter of Shah Nuwaz	Born in the Dukk hin, 12th Shaban, A. H. 1063. Growned in the garden of Sholamar, in the Soobu of Uhmudnugur, Friday 10th Zilhij, A. H. 1118.	Killed in the purguna of Jaju ou, in the Soobu of Ukburabad, 18th Ru- bee, ooluwwul, A. H. 1119, in the bat- tle with Buhadoor Shah.	Interred in the mausoleum of Hoomayoon shah.  Aged I. years 55, 3, 15.  Reigned I. months 3, and 20 days, in the fem Malwa.	
	Born near Hydurabad, in the Dukk,hin, 30th Rujub, A. H. 1053. Crowned in the town of Jaju,00, when going to battle with Azim Shah, 1st Zilhij, A. H. 1118.	Mohurrum, A. H. 1124, from bodily		
her, Buhadoor Shah.	Born in the Dukk, hin, Wednesday 10th Rumzan, A. H. 1072. Crowned at Lahuor, Thursday 14th Rubee, ool-uwwul, A. H. 1124.	Assassinated in the fort of Dihlee, Friday oth Zilhij, A. H. 1124.—Left 2 sons.		
her, Uzeemoosh-shan, the son of loor Shah.	Born in the compaign to the Dukk, hin, in Bengal, Thursday 18th Rumzan, A. H. 1098.  Crowned in the fort of Dihlee, Friday 23d Zilhij, A. H. 1124.	Blinded and murdered, after being imprisoned, 9th Rujub 1131; he was imprisoned the 8th Rubee, oossance, A. H. 1131.	ma,yoon.	
her, Rufee osh-shan, the son ihadoor Shah,—Mother Noo- nisa Begum, the daughter of a Nujum Baghu.	A. H.	Died in the environs of Agra, 19th Rujub, A. H. 1131, of a consumption.		
ther. Rufee,oosh-shan, the son ahadoor Shah	Born in Ghuzneen. Crowned in the environs of Agra, 19th Rujub, A. H. 1131.	Died in the environs of Agra, 17th Zceqad, A. H. 1131, from intoxica- tion of opium seeds.	Interred in the mausoleum of Huma, your. Aged. Reigned I. months 3, and 28 days.	
ther, Juhan Shah, the son of Bu or Shah, — Mother, Nuwwal see,u.	Crowned in the village of Kuruole, eight kos from Agra, 25th Zeeqad, A. H. 1131.	day 27th Rubee oossanee, A. H. 1161	Shykh Nizamooddeen.	
her, Moohummud Shah,—Mo Ood,hum Ba,ee.	Born in the fort of Dillee, Tuesday 17th Rubee, oossanee, A. H. 1138.  Crowned in the town of Paneeput, Monday 2d Jumadee, coluwwul, A. H. 1161.	10th Shaban, A. H. 1167; died 28th	nin Diblee, in the mausoleum of Muree um Ma	
er, Moo,izzooddeen Juhand: —Mother, Unoop Ba,ee.	Born in the Soobu of Mooltan, Friday, A. H. 1099, agreeing to the 5th Sawan, 1753, of the Hindoos. Crowned in the fort of Diblee, Tuesday 10th Shaban, A. H. 1167.	8th Rubee, oossance, A. H. 1173, o	Interred in the platform before the mausler of Hooma, yoon.  Aged l. years 74.  Reigned l. years 6, 7, 28.	
ne writer did not follow in male 1 CO 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1				

he writer did not follow any regular plan of Orthography in his communication, his method was nevertheless so much near HRIST'S than Sir WILLIAM JONES'S, as to make it convenient here to follow the former, in preference to the latter.

स्वत् १ शाकंभरी ताश्रीमहीस (अभानाः

भूगीलाकवि गीला मंदिर

गंकावा पुरू ं

**॥**वभघकत्र र

and the

भवन् १३१० वैशाख स्दी १५ कंभरी भूवति श्रीमदवेह्नदेवात्म भ्रमहीसलदेवस्य ॥

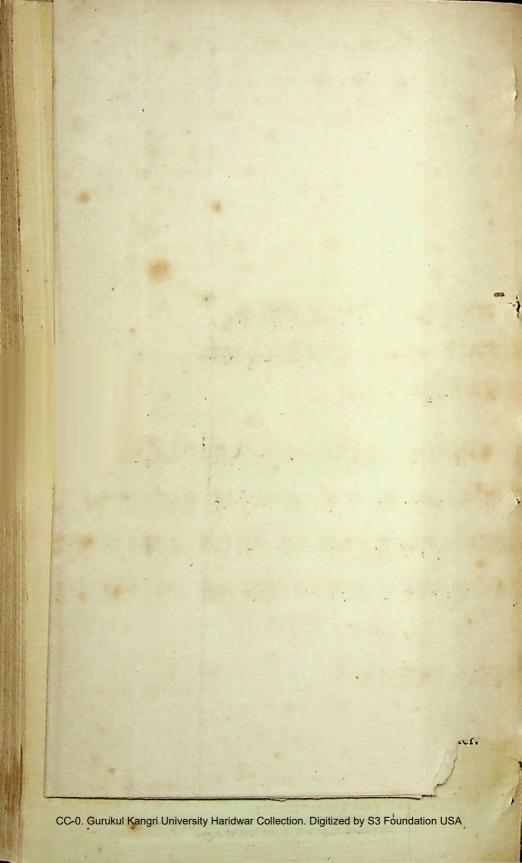
अभागाम रिपु प्रियानयन योः प्रयिदं तानारे प्रयक्षाणि न्णानि वैभव्मिलका एंपशसावकम्। आवियादाहिमादे विरिचतिवजयसीर्थ यात्राप्रसंद्वीवेषु प्रहर्तान्पतिषु विनमक धरेषुप्रसन्नः गिलीकविरुद एवविन नः शून्यं मनाविदि षां श्रीमिहि यहरानदेवभवतः प्राप्तेप्रयागात्स वे। आयावतं यथार्थं पुनर पिकृतवासि छविद्धेद नाभिर्यं कंभरीं द्रान गितविनयते वीसल स्वीणिपालः गमंदिर सादरेष्मवत् स्रांतेष् वामभ्वां श्रांगन्विग्रह चितिपते न्याय्यश्ववासस्य । जूतेमंत्रतिवाहमान लापुरूषान मस्पभवतानारसव वारांनिधे किर्मच्याप इति श्रयः कि मूभवान्त्रो उनिद्राधितः। असाभिः कर दं यधा धिहिम विद्यांतराल भूगे षस्री कर गायमासु भवतामू घाग श्रवांमनः

म् प्रहरान एषविनयी तिलक्षा कंभरीभूपितः संव त्ष्रीविक्रमादित्य१९२०विष्वाखसुदी१५गुरे विखितमिद---प्रत्य संगी उन्वयकायस्प्रमाहवपुत्र श्रीपतिना अत्रसमयेमहामंत्रीरा न पुत्रश्रीम खन्य गपालः ॥

भयक्र च कवर्ती

and c. up

The same Inscription - in a more modern Character

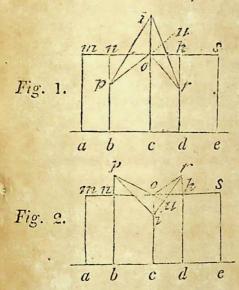


# XVII.

DEMONSTRATION of the 12th Axiom of the first book of Euclid.

BY THE REV. PAUL LIMRICK.

Prop. 1, Fig. 1, 2.



If two right lines, m a and o c, be equal and perpendicular to the same right line a c, and a right line m o be drawn joining their terms; a perpendicular nb, let fall, from any point n, in the line m o, upon the line a c, is equal to m a=c o.

PROOF, nb cannot be greater that ma, nor less than it.

PRODUCE a c, till c e = a c; erect a perpendicular e s = a m, draw the right line os, take c d = a b; erect a perpendicular dk. Now, if the figure maco be applied to oc e s so that the point a may fall upon c, and the line a c on c e, the point b will fall upon d, and c upon e; and since the angles at a, b, c, d, and e are

d If two equal right lines a c, b d, be perpendicular to the same right line a b, and a right line c d be drawn joining their terms; 1st. The angles a c d, b d c will be equal; 2dly, the angles acd, bdc b will be right angles; and 3dly, the right line c d will be equal to a b.

Draw the right lines a d, b c: in the right angle triangles cab, dba the sides containing the right angles are equal by construction, therefore (by 4. 1.) a d=b c, therefore the triangles a c d, b a c are mutually equilateral, therefore the angles a c d, b d c, which are opposed to the equal sides a d, b c, are equal (by 8, 1.)

OF THE FIRST BOOK OF EUCLID.

edly. From any point m, in the line c d, let fall c m d a perpendicular to the line ab: by the 1st proposition, m = ac=bd; therefore, by the foregoing part, n m c = a c m = b d m $\equiv n \ m \ d : n \ m \ c, n \ m \ d$  are right

angles: consequently a c d, b d c are also right angles.

3dly. Draw the right line da; the angle a cd is d a right angle by the 2d part, and therefore equal to

abc; and the sides ac, bd are equal by construction; now if a b be not equal to cd, take bm either greater

or less than a b, which shall be equal to c d; and draw the right line dm, and since a c d is a right angle, by the foregoing part, and therefore equal to a b d, and a c = b d by construction, and also d c =b m by supposition; d m will be equal to d a (4, 1,) and therefore the angle dma=dam (5, 1,) but dma is an obtuse angle (16, 1,) therefore two angles of a triangle would be greater than two right angles, contrary to 17, 1, of the Elements; therefore ba cannot be greater nor less than d c : c d = a b. Q. E. D.

Prop. 3d. Fig. 6.

Ir two right lines a c, b d, be perpendicular to the same right line a b; and from any point c, in one line, be drawn c d, perpendicular to the other;

a c = b d, and therefore c d = a b, and the angle a c da right angle. SUPPOSE d If two equal right lines a c, b d, be perpendicular to the same right line a b, and a right line c d be drawn joining their terms; 1st. The angles a c d, b d c will be equal; 2dly, the angles acd, bdc b will be right angles; and 3dly, the right line c d will be equal to a b.

Draw the right lines a d, b c: in the right angle triangles cab, dba the sides containing the right angles are equal by construction, therefore (by 4. 1.) a d=b c, therefore the triangles a c d, b a c are mutually equilateral, therefore the angles a c d, b d c, which are opposed to the equal sides a d, b c, are equal (by 8, 1.)

OF THE FIRST BOOK OF EUCLID.

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angles: consequently a c d, b d c are also right angles.

3dly. Draw the right line da; the angle a cd is d a right angle by the 2d part, and therefore equal to

abc; and the sides ac, bd are equal by construction; now if a b be not equal to cd, take bm either greater

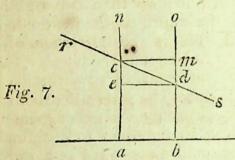
or less than a b, which shall be equal to c d; and draw the right line dm, and since a c d is a right angle, by the foregoing part, and therefore equal to a b d, and a c = b d by construction, and also d c =b m by supposition; d m will be equal to d a (4, 1,) and therefore the angle dma=dam (5, 1,) but dma is an obtuse angle (16, 1,) therefore two angles of a triangle would be greater than two right angles, contrary to 17, 1, of the Elements; therefore ba cannot be greater nor less than d c : c d = a b. Q. E. D.

Prop. 3d. Fig. 6.

Ir two right lines a c, b d, be perpendicular to the same right line a b; and from any point c, in one line, be drawn c d, perpendicular to the other;

a c = b d, and therefore c d = a b, and the angle a c da right angle. SUPPOSE SUPPOSE ac to be greater or less than bd, take ao=bd and draw do: now, since ao=bd, bdo will be a right angle (prop. 2) and therefore equal to bdc, which is impossible: ac cannot be greater nor less than bd: ac=bd, and therefore (by the foregoing proposition) cd=ab and acd a right angle. QED.

# Prop. 4.



Ir two right lines, an, bo, perpendicular to the same right line ab, be cut by a right line rs; the alternate angles will be equal; the external angle equal to

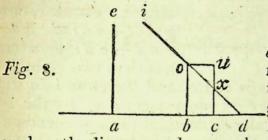
the internal remote angle on the same side of the cutting line; and the two internal angles, on the same side, equal to two right angles.

If the cutting line rs be perpendicular to one of the given lines, it will be perpendicular to the other (by the foregoing prop.) and therefore all the angles

right, and consequently equal.

If the cutting line r s be not perpendicular, draw the perpendicular c m, d e; by the former proposition c m=a b=e d; also the angle m d e a right angle; by the 2d prop. ce=md: the triangles ced, cmd, are mutually equilateral; and therefore (8.1.) ecd=cdm; and consequently their complements ncd and bdc are equal; again bds=rdo=acs; again acd+bdc=mdc+bdc=to two right angles. Q E D.

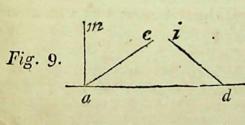
Prop. 5, Fig. 8, 9, 10.



Ir two right lines, ae, do, stand upon a right line ad, so that the two internal angles e ad, od b are less than two right

angles, the lines a e, d o, produced on the same side of a b, shall meet. N. B. This is the 12th axiom of the 1st book of Euclid.

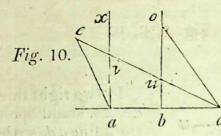
1st. Let one of the lines, a e, be perpendicular to ad, and consequently the angle ida acute (by supposition) from any point x, in the line d i, let fall a perpendicular x c, meeting a d in c; take xo = dx; produce cx; draw the perpendiculars ob, ou. Now in the triangles oxu, dxc, the angles at x are vertical, and those at u and c right angles, and the side ox equal to xd, : cd = ou. (26. 1.) = bc (prop. 3d.) therefore, if from the line da be taken parts equal to cd, till the whole be exhausted, and from di produced be taken the same number of parts  $\equiv$  to dx. and right lines be drawn from the several points of division in di to the corresponding points of division in ad, these lines will be all perpendicular to ad, but the last of them either coincides with ae or falls beyond it: di must meet ae.



Ir both the lines a e, di form acute angles with a d, erect the perpendicular a m: by the last case d i must meet am, and therefore must first meet a e.

GG

Fig.



If the angle eadbe obtuse, erect a perpendicular  $a\bar{x}$ , make the angle edo = eax, then adbe = eadbe =

gles: therefore o d a is acute, and therefore i d a still more acute, therefore d i must meet a x (by the 1st case) suppose in i, take du = ai let fall a perpendicular ub, produce u b till it meet d o (1st case) in o, take a e = d o and draw the right line i e: now in the triangles eai and odu, ea = do. and ai = du by construction; and these sides contain equal angles, eai = odu therefore (4;1) aie = du o = (proposition 4) xid: aie + aid are equal to two right angles,: d i and i e are one right line,: d u and a e meet in e. Q E D.

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### XIX.

An Account of the Bazeegurs, a sect commonly denominated Nurs\*.

#### BY CAPTAIN DAVID RICHARDSON.

A PERUSAL of Grellman's dissertation on the Gipsies of Europe, in which this country is considered as having given birth to that wandering race, induced me to commence an inquiry into the manners of a people in Hindoostan denominated Nuts, whose mode of life seemed somewhat to assimilate with his description. It is my intention, should this, my first endeavour, meet with approbation, to pursue this line of investigation still farther, and from time to time I may be enabled to bring forwards short sketches of the tribes within the Company's provinces, who, being in other respects too insignificant for the pages of the historian, may have hitherto been passed over unnoticed, although many of their usages and ceremonies may still merit a detail, as detached facts in the general history of mankind. Strictly speaking, these people might be denominated players or actors, from their Persian name of Bazee-gur, which may be literally rendered a juggler or tricker; but the appellation of Nut extends to several tribes, and properly belongs to many more; each party having branched out and formed itself into a distinct sect, agreeably to the habits of life or modes of subsistence which necessity and local circumstances may have induced them to adopt, as their own peculiar calling or art.

The Bazeegurs are subdivided into seven casts, viz.

the Charee, Ath bhyeea, Bynsa, Purbuttee, Kalkoor

For the following and other explanatory notes, I am indebted to

koor, Dorkinee and Gungwar; but the difference seems only in name, for they live together and intermarry as one people; they say they are descended

from four brothers of the same family.

They profess to be Moofulmans\*, that is, they undergo circumcision, and at their weddings and burials a Qazee and Moolla attend to read the service; thus far and no farther are they Moosulmans. Of the prophet they seem to have little knowledge, and though in the creed which some of them can in distinctly recollect, they repeat his titles, yet when questioned on the subject, they can give no further account of him, than that he was a Saint or Peer. They acknowledge a God, and in all their hopes and fears address him, except when such address might be supposed to interfere in Tansyn's department, a famous musician who flourished, I believe, in the ime of Ukbur, and whom they consider as their tutelary

<sup>\*</sup> A person well versed in the Eastern languages, will often be able to tell the nation to which any professional man really belongs, from the name he assumes as such. When a Sonar or goldsmith is termed Zurgur or Sadu-kar, he will in general be a Moofulman, and in this way we meet with Joolaha, Mochee Durzee, Hujam, Qissukhan, Moosuwavir, Mee,anjee, instead of the Hindurvee words Tantee, Chumar, Soojee, Na,ee, Kut, buk, Pande, Chitera, for a Weaver, a Shoemaker, Taylor, Barber, Story-teller, Schoolmaster, and Painter in succession. The word Hulalkhor, which is applied to a Saveeper, generally indicates the same discrimination of a Moosulman, as Bibangee does to a Hindoo; a truth which the two nations acknowledge with great reluctance. The reason is obviously founded on that pride of cast which they both support, often at our expence. In this instance they will stoutly deny the fact stated here, unless the inquirer knows enough of the language to call a Hulalkhor before them if Mosfulnans, and desire him to repeat his creed, &c. In this and the other duties of Islamism, they are no doubt often so defective that we cannot venture to affirm they are orthodox Moohummudans, any more than we can vouch for the B, bungees being perfect Hindoos; all we dare in candourallege, being, that these people respectively lean, in their belief, worship and manners, much more to the one religion than the other, as the text will elucidate in the Nuts' history before us. It is a curious enough circumstance, that there are certain employments here engrossed almost exclusively by the Moofulmans; among these the Bihishtees or Suggas who CC-0. Gurukul Rangi University Handwar Collection. Digitized by S3 Foundation USA prominent.

tutelary deity; consequently they look up to him for success and safety in all their professional exploits. These consist of playing on various instruments, singing, dancing, tumbling, &c. The two latter accomplishments are peculiar to the women of this sect. The notions of religion and a future state among this vagrant race, are principally derived from their songs, which are beautifully simple. They are commonly the production of Kubeer, a poet of great fame, and who, considering the nature of his poems, deserves to be still better known \*. On every occa-

\* He was a weaver by trade, and flourished in the reign of Sher Shah, the Cromwell of Indian history. There are, however, various and contradictory traditions relative to our humble philosopher, as some accounts bring him down to the time of Ukbur. All, however, agree as to his being a Soofee or Deist of the most exalted sentiments, and of the most unbounded benevolence. He reprobated with severity the religious intolerance and worship of both Hindoos and Moofulmans, in such a pleasing poetic strain of rustic wir, humour, and sound reasoning, that to this day both nations contend for the honour of his birth, in their respective sects or tribes. He published a book of poems that are still universally esteemed, as they inculcate the purest morality, and the greatest good will and hospitality to all the children of Man. From the disinterested yet alluring doctrines they contain, a sect has sprung up in Hindoostan under the name of Kubeer-punt hee, who are so universally esteemed for veracity and other virtues among both Hindoos and Moosulmans, that they may be with propriety considered the Quakers of this hemisphere. They resemble that respectable body in the neatness of their dress and simplicity of their manners, which are neither strictly Moohummudun nor Hinduwee; being rather a mixture of the best parts of both. A translation of Kubeer's works, with the life of that sage, and an account of his followers, relative to their tenets and societies, remain still as desiderata in the history of India. The time of Kubeer's death seems involved in equal obscurity with the mannerof his decease and burial. They relate that he lived a long time at Kajee, near Gy,a, and sojourned also at Jugurnath where he gave great offence to the Bruhmuns by his conduct and tolerant doctrine. When stricken in years, he departed this life among a concourse of his disciples, both Moosulmans and Hindoos. They quarrelled about the mode of disposing of his remains, which were placed in another apartment during the dispute. The Moofulmans were, it is alleged, victors, and buried him accordingly. The Hindoos affirm, however, that his body during the altercation disappeared, and a Lotos flower was found in its stead, which they have carefully preserved. Be this as it may, it is

sion of doubt they have a quotation ready from their favourite bard; and in answer to my queries respecting the state of the soul after death, one of them repeated the following stanza:

Mun moo, a nu ma, e, a moo, ee mur mur gu, e sureer, Asa tishna nu moo, ee kuh gu, e das Kubeer.

These lines in that philosopher's works are said to be more correctly written so,

Ma ea muree nu mun mura mur mur gya sureer, Asa tisna na mitee yon kuth gue Kubeer.

ایا مری نہ من مرا مر مر گیا سریر آسا تبنا نامتی بون کتب گر کبیر

Which may be thus rendered,

Nor soul nor love divine can die,
Although our frame must perish here,
Still longing hope points to the sky;
Thus sings the poet Das Kubeer.

They conceive one spirit pervades all nature, and that their soul being a particle of that universal spirit, will of course rejoin it, when released from its

corporeal shackles.

At all their feasts, which are as frequent as the means will admit, men, women, and children drink to excess. Liquor with them is the summum bonum of life; every crime may be expiated by plentiful libations of strong drink: whence it follows that any

certain that his name is held in great veneration by these two very different people; those called Kubeer-punt, hee feem nevertheless to have rather more of the *Hindoo* than *Moofulman* in their composition, which

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proxima (id est naturlia) divisiones, subdivisione	sque, 176017 tomocrotos etc. 11.	
I. Phytiphagi, Mandibulæ apice acuro perpendiculariter fisso ult labium superius prominentes. Larvæ in medulla Palmarum, imagines in carum fronde nascente degentes. Gais Dagobert: novum Palmista; = Gedeon, Oromedon, Hercules, &c. Divideatur Labio Inferiore corneoN. B. 2.  A: Late lanceolato plano. Species quinque, No. 3.  B: Semicyndrico sursum arcuato utrimque ante apicem rotundum palpigero, No. 8, Species unica.	SCARABÆI.  II. LIGNIVORI, Mandibulæ apice obtuso, polito, ultra labium superius et ad labii inferioris latera prominentes. Larvæ imagin ligno putrescente arboribusque emortuis degentes.  SYLVANUS, D. No. 4. Divideatur secundúm clypei cornu.  A: unicum, Unicornes, subdivideantur secundum thoracis excabilidades.  B: nullum, vel tubercula, Mutici, subdivideantur secundum thoracem.  a: transversalem; species 5. b: longitudinalem; species 3.  a: gibbum; fæminæ; 8 species 3.	cundum itérum in genera proxima. Merdigeri sunt secundum scutellum,
I. SCUTELLATI.  Divideantur facillime secundum instrumenta cibaria, examine accuratre et oris explicatione (quæ ducat in pericuin genera duo naturalia Dagob:—  1. FIMETARIUS D: instrumentis cibariis, palpis exceptis omno obtectis atque obsconditis clypeo.  Divideatur secundum thoracem.  A: Retusum.  B: Lævem glabrum.  C: Scabriusculum	II. SINISCUTELLATI i. e. scutello minuto; in nonnullis, scutello elytris obtecto ambobus elytrorum fere longitudine, aut longior. N. B. 5.  2. MINATOR D. mandibulis ultra Clypeum prominentibus. Confitendum hocce adhuc esse genus superum, tria genera proxima in cludens quæ ob defedum numeri sufficientis et specierum	1. adsciti.  Tibiæ posticæ femoribus longio- res, graciles incurvæ, ad volven- tudine, aut brevious, ac-
Species 2. Subdivideantur secundum Elytroim Species 9.  Strias.  a: Sulcatas. Hi subdivideantur stria vel sulco katerali.  b: Viz. incressas, coloratas aut nullas Species rivem.  + angulum ani attingente;	A. Depressi.  a. Elytra lateribus integris suffur accutata. Copris sacer et allines, Species 4.  b. Elytra lateribus sinuatis sutura recta apice tantum dellexo S. C. Koenigii et affines 9.  B. Compressi femoribu elongatis clavatis ventre gi planiusculo Genus Propris financia dellexo S. C. Koenigii et affines 9.  C. Globosi gibbi; thoracis lateribus	A. GACATHEUS D. dorso convexioscule, cute imaginis ære indurata nigri omnes. Copris planiusulo.  Hamadryas, Lunaris, Sabæus, Molossus et affines 26.
distincto: sudivideantur secundum elytra.	altius descendentibus, quam elytra et abdomen, capite oblongo utrinque sub oculis sinuato. Species quinque.  1: nudi 3: vestiti 1: nudi 3: vestiti Cornu Clypei  1 nullo 1 unico 1 nullo 1 nullo 2 anico 2 binis 2 unico 2 unico 2 unico 3 binis 4 tribus 4 quatuor 4 tribus 4 quatuor 5 nullo 5 quatuor Copris Taurus et Species affines 19.  Species affines 19.  Species 2. Species 3.	† nudi Copris bonasus Schreberi † † vestiti Copris nuchicons u et affines species 22. et affines 15,  Quæ iterum artificialiter in systemate (minime enim vero secundum marzo affinitatem in museo) in sequentes subdivisiones distribui possunt secundum cornu ut hic factum est copridibus unicoloribus, Coprides autem met colores vestiti bicornes iterum iterumq. Subdividendi sunt secundum unum, in clypei linea longitudinale.—Rhinoceroidei aut transversali.  B. Tauroidei.

Nota Explanatoria execusatoria, tabulam synopticam Scarabaorum Fabricianerum Dagobertianam elucidantes. 1. Quod talis distributione revera desideretur in Entomologia id probri potest.

† Fabricii ipsius dictu in procemio Entomologia sua systematicae mendatae et auctae X: "Entomologus ideo veru in construendis generibus characteribus certis firmis lege artis et systematis mui tits desudabit. Plura adhue conficinda, quae attingere nondum valui:" aliisque locis Philosophiae ejus Entomologica, quibus

Scarabæorum genus inter genera difficiliora nimio Specierum numero aborantia, eamque ob rem dissecanda, imprimis nomina ur.

†† Numero Specierum, quæ in Fabricu Entomologia Systematica m: et Auc. sub nomine Scarabæus complectuntur, qui eo jam tempore 237 excessit, opereque

the Oeconomia et Victu valde differente, cum degunt in Palmarun medulla nonnulli alii in ligno putrescente, plurimi alii vero in Stercore animalium.

No. 2. Præter datos characteres genericos (non solum hujus sed etim omnium generum reliquorum in hac tabula propositorum) plures alii adsuut, et primarii ab reliquis instrumentis cabariis desumpti el secundarii ab aliis corporis artibus accessiti, quos brevitatis studio in hac tabula omisi aut temporis defectu nondum potui.

No. 3. i. e. Species quinque hujus generis et subdivisionis erant irmuseo; dum haec distributio ponebatur, quod brevitatis studio, modo proposito sum indicaturus per omnem hanc tabulam.

No. 4. Collocando Sylvanorum species in subdivisiones sequentes secutus sum haerisium mearum entomologicarum unicam, quarum justificationem L B. reperurus sit si velit, in Proæmio anni naturalis mei bengalici sub prælo nuc sudantis et descriptionem musci mei pro parte continentis.

No. 5. Rano hujus subdivisionis secundum scutellum in tres ordines et imprimis secundi hujus ordinis character (scutello minuto aut nullo) minime parte, et vest pars tolus hujus tabulæ. Quisquis autem Entomologus in hac Entomologiæ parte bene versatus ignorare non potest, quod insecta in hoc ordine enumerata quidquampeculiare et in habitu et in oeconomia, et quod ea absque incommodo nec scarabæis scutellatis nec exscutellatis adjungi possint. Pretere observation de la propositioni de la proposita de la propositioni de la propositioni de la propositioni de la quoque specious et individus, optimus novi generis character essentialis existimandum est, cum unica nota absolvatur. His bene consideratis ordinen credo bonu conservatium ejus vero characterem hic datum valde mediocrem, et cum tempore ei alium meliorem esse substituendum.

Quodus speciolus et individuis, optimus novi generis character essentialis existimandum est, cum unica nota absolvatur. His bene consideratis ordinen credo bonu conservatium ejus vero characterem hic datum valde mediocrem, et cum tempore ei alium meliorem esse substituendum.

Quibus node proposito peractis characterium et earum magnam affinitatem inter se, valde ne cessarium est quod Fimetarii mei distribuantur in divisiones subdivisiones quibus node proposito peractis characterium est quod subdividendo s

No. of Of magnum specierum numerum et earum magnam affinitatem inter se, valde necessarium est quod Fimetarii mei distribuantur in divisiones subutitatem node proposito peractis observavi rationein, quam hic in dividendo subdividendoque sum secutus, laborare incommodis variis quae in anno meo natur. Not. 7 Opere finito, Copridibusque proposito modo distributis observavi eas secundum tibiarum posticarum figuram esse distribuendas non ut hic factum est in binas divisione secin tres. Characteres aistinctivi tertiæ hujus divisionis, quae inter primam et secundam datam inserenda est, sunt tibiæ posticæ rectæ, femorum longium dine, greiles apice tantum externo parum dilatato margine externo serrato ciliato.

Systematica em: et auct:) distributio in genera e, instrugrtibus consultis. No. 1.

II. LIGNIVO no putrescente

: unicum, Un. vationem.

transversalem :

III. MERDIGERI. Notis distinctivis divisionum dúarum præcedentium non præditi. Larvæ imaginesque in stercore animalium viventes. Hi iterum constituunt, non genus proximum (uti sunt bina præcedentia) sed genus superum, quod iterum divideatur in genera inferiora, et hac iterum in genera proxima. Merdigeri sunt secundum scutellum.

MERDIGERI, No. 5.

#### destructionis In

. MINATOR peum promine. ce adhuc esse era proxima in um numeri suffi ainiduarum hi

## III. EXSCUTELLATI. COPRIS G.

1. adsciti. Tibiæ posticæ femoribus longiores, graciles incurvæ, ad volvendum stercores globulum apice acuto auctæ.

2. legitimi, No. 7.

Tibiæ posticæ femorum longitudine, aut breviores, compressattriangulares, latere postico brevissimo et ruga eo parallela in pagina externa dentatis.

e D dorso convexiusculo. B. Conscripti dorsa

person who has accumulated property, is soon considered as a culprit, and a charge being brought against him, the complaint is carried before a Puncha et \*, when the business commonly concludes by his being obliged to provide a lethean draught for the fraternity to which he belongs. This is an exact recital of what happened to two men who waited upon me, and to whom I gave a trifling present. It was found that they had communicated to me some information which ought to have been concealed, and they therefore, in addition to the ordinary fine, underwent the peculiar punishment of having their noses rubbed upon the ground.

Though professing Islamism, they employ a Bruhmun, who is supposed to be an adept in astrology, to fix upon a name for their children, whom they permit to remain at the breast till five or six years of age. It is no uncommon thing to see four or five miserable infants clinging round their mother and struggling for their scanty portion of nourishment, the whole of which, if we might judge from the appearance of the woman, would hardly suffice for one. This practice, with the violent exercises which they are taught in 'their youth, and the excessive and habitual indulgence in drinking intoxicating liquors, must greatly curtail the lives of these wretched females. Their marriages are generally deferred to a later period than is usual in this climate, in consequence of a daughter being considered as productive property to the parents, by her profes-G G 4

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<sup>\*</sup> The derivation of this word from panch, five, admirably illustrates the ancient practice, as well as the necessity, of a casting voice or majority, in all judicial assemblies of a limited number, and proves alone, with numerous other instances of the same kind; how indispensable a knowledge of languages is, to the observing traveller and intelligent historian. Had all those who have written on Indian affairs hitherto, viewed this subject with the eyes of an Eton, we should not have so much to unlearn as we now must, in every matter of importance here. Whoever peruses his excellent account of Turkey, will see the force of the present remark, and apply it accordingly.

sional abilities. The girls, who are merely taught to dance and sing, like the common Nach girls of Hindoostan, have no restrictions on their moral conduct as females; but the chastity of those damsels whose peculiar department is tumbling, is strictly enjoined, until their stations can be supplied by younger ones, trained up in the same line When this event takes place, the older performers are then permitted to join the mere dancers, from among whom the men, though aware of their incontinence, make no difficulty of selecting a wife. After the matrimonial ceremony is over, they no longer exhibit as public dancers. A total change of conduct is now looked for, and generally, I believe ensues To reconcile this in some manner to our belief, it may be necessary to mention, that contrary to the prevailing practice in India, the lady is allowed the privilege of judging for herself, nor are any preparations for the marriage thought of till her assent has been given, in cases where no previous choice has been made.

There are in and about the environs of Calcutta, five sets of these people, each consisting of from twenty to thirty, exclusive of children. There is a Surdar to each set, one of whom is considered as the chief or Nardar Boutah, at this station; the name of the present is Munbhungee\*, which in one sense of the word, may be translated Bon Vivant, or Jovial Soul; and it is probable, his social qualities may have obtained for him his present exalted situation as well .

<sup>\*</sup> The hemp plant, well known here as an intoxicating drug, under the name of b, hung corrupted to bang, is probably the word whence b, hungee is derived, as this is often a term of reproach like our drunkard, sot, &c. applied to those who indulge in the various preparations of this pernicious vegetable, named subzee, ganja, churus, &c. Mun expresses the Latin mens, mind, and is the root of many common Hindostanee words. From it the name of Munoo (Menu) the famous Hindoo law-giver, is regularly formed, and might be translated Intelligence, The being, &c. It is frequently used as a term of endearment to Children, Monkies, &c. like our Jackey.

as title, which in reality appears to be rather a

Hindoo's than a Moofulman's appellation.

The extraordinary feats of agility which the women of this set exhibit, are so well known as to render any description unnecessary. They have no regular habitations, being contented with temporary huts, formed of the Hoogla\* or Sirkee mats, and when they have occasion to change their stations, it is attended, as may easily be imagined, with but little trouble; both house and furniture would hardly be a load for one person.

The people of each set are, like our actors, hired by the Surdar or manager of a company for a certain period, generally one year; after which, they are at liberty to join any other party. No person can establish a set without the sanction of the Nardar Boutah, who, I believe, receives a † chout of the

+ The fourth, and the notorious tax or duty which the Muhrattas have often claimed without success on our revenues. It is also supposed to be the standard quantum of public or private peculation, to which no extraordinary odium is attached among the natives, who are too apt to consider one fourth of their master's property entrusted to them at once, as the shikari bulal or fair game, for every honest servant's pursuit.

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<sup>\*</sup> The first appears to be of the flag, or sedge kind, of great use for slight enclosures and for lining straw and tiled roofs, either to mitigate the heat of the sun, or to give the inside a finished appearance. After the conflagrations so common in all parts of India, the poor sufferers generally have recourse to the Hoogla or Sirkee, with which they shelter themselves in temporary habitations from the weather. It is possible enough that the far famed harbour of Hooglee derives its name from the banks of the river (which we have termed the Hooglee also,) having been at that place in days of yore overgrown with this very plant, which is seldom if ever met with in the interior or higher parts of Hindoostan. This supposition derives weight from Hijlee, the place we absurdly name Ingellee, being famous for the production of a tree termed Hijul, a compound probably of hee life, and jul water, to denote the soil it thrives in. The Sirkee on the contrary is in abundance in the upper provinces, and seems of the rush species. It is also used much in the same manner as the other, though growing in low grounds it is not so completely an aquatic plant as the Hoogla. As the lining of Bungla roofs, it looks much neater in every respect, and is by

profits, besides a tax of two rupees which is levied on the girls of each set, as often as they may have attracted the notice of persons not of their own cast. This from their mode of life, must be a tolerably productive duty. When the parties return from their excursions, this money is paid to the Nardar Boutah. who convenes his people, and they continue eating and drinking till the whole is expended. When any of the Surdars are suspected of giving in an unfair statement of their profits, a Punchaet is assembled, before whom the supposed cuiprit is ordered to undergo a fiery ordeal, by applying his tongue to a piece of red hot iron; if it burns him, he is declared guilty. A fine, always consisting of liquor, is imposed, the quantity agreeing, I suspect, more with the insatiable desires of the Punchaet than the nature of the crime. From a court so constituted, the verdict Not guilty, may seldom be looked for. If the liquor be not immediately produced, the delinquent is banished from their society, hooted and execrated whereever he comes; his very wife and children avoid him. Thus oppressed, he soon becomes a suppliant to the Nardar Boutah; to bring about a reconciliation, acknowledges the justice of their sentence, and his willingness to abide by their award. If he has no money, and his friends cannot supply him, he must get it, and probably the necessity of the case may excuse the means, should they perchance not square exactly with our refined notions of honesty. However, it is but justice to this particular set to observe, that the country people seem in general to consider them as an honest inoffensive race. Among themselves they lay claim to great veracity and honesty, and declare, notwithstanding the story of the ordeal, that no Bazeegur would attempt a deception in the payment of his Chout. If this be a true statement of the case, we have to lament, that the rareness of such probity renders the circumstance rather difficult of belief, especially among the people whose notions of morality must be very loose, if we CC-0. Gurukul Kangri University Haridwar Collection. Digitized by S3 Foundation USA

can

can with propriety form an unfavourable opinion from the derivative word Nutkhut, meaning in the Hindoostanee, a rogue, blackguard, &c. Truth still forces us to add, that Nutkhut is rather applicable to imaginary than downright roguery, in expressions

of endearment and familiarity.

I can form no idea of their numbers in Bengal. In many places they have lands, but they are not themselves the cultivators. Burdwan seems to be their great resort; and when I first entered on this enquiry, I was informed that their chief resided at Chundurkona; that a woman named Toota, wife of Joogkhan, their late Nardar Boutah, was considered as chief of all the sects in Bengal. I afterwards learnt from Munb,hungee, the Nardar Boutah of Calcutta, that the above was a misrepresentation; that he and his people were not at all dependent on Chundurkona. He said the men who had been with me before, from motives of fear, concealed his name; that all the Bazeegurs within the Purgunnus of Jushur, or Jusur, Hoogley, &c. were solely under his controul; and that the following was the traditional account they had of their ancestors. In the countries of Ghazeepoor, Ullahabad, &c. about two hundred years ago, there were four brothers, named Sa, Summoola, Ghoondra, and Moolla, who finding it difficult to support their numerous followers in that part of the country, determined to separate, and to march towards the four quarters of the world, Sa to the east, Summoolla to the west, Ghoondra to the north, and Moolla to the south; that Sa arriving in Bengal, took up his residence at Hooglee; that having governed peaceably for many years, he died at Unwurpoor, near Barasut, where to this day his faithful descendants offer up their prayers to his manes. He had three sons, who succeeded each other; first Luk, hun, the second Momeen, the third Ghazee Khan. The succession then regularly devolved on Gholamee Khan, Ouladee Khan, Sadee Khan,

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Urub Khan, Moonuwwur Khan Misree, Sundul Khan, and Rujbee Khan, father to the present chief Munbhungee. He allows that the family of the Nardar Boutah of Chundurkona is descended from the same stock, and that the boundaries of that department extend to Medneepoor\*, Burdwan, and Moorshidabad; that none of her people can enter his districts with an intention of procuring moneyby dancing or begging, without obtaining his permission and paying accordingly. The same system holds good in respect to his dependents visiting her country. Those men and women who are not in any of the sets, wander about from place to place, obtaining a precarious livelihood by begging, and sometimes by disposing of little trinkets t, which they either fabricate themselves, or purchase in Calcutta.

These sects, viz. the Bazeegurs, having adopted, if not the religion, at least the name, of Moosulmans, are more civilized than the other wandering tribes. Their diet and apparel correspond with the Moosulmans. Some of their women are, I have heard, extremely handsome, and esteemed as courtezans in the East accordingly; though I must confess, I

<sup>\*</sup> Better known among us under the deviation Midnapore, which is very slight when compared to the number we pervert in a way that must hereafter create much confusion in the names of places whenever we know enough of the language to write them properly. It will then, perhaps, puzzle the geographers of the day to reconcile Jessore, Ingellee, Serampore, &c. with the true pronunciation of Justur, or Jusur, Hijlee, Sreerampoor, &c. by which alone the natives term these places among themselves.

<sup>†</sup> A tribe, termed Bisatee, supply these trinkets, and attend markets, fairs, and such places, with their small wares, exactly as our pedlars do. Bazeechu and k, bilouna are commonly applied to the tops these people sell, which in our and the oriental languages, are properly called playthings. Those formed of tin are for the most part fabricated by the strolling gipsies or players named buhroopee, a, from their dexterity in assuming various forms, buh signifying many, and roop a face or shape.

have not seen any who, in my opinion, came under that description as to personal charms.

I cannot observe any peculiarity of feature which

would characterize them as a distinct people.

Before the establishment of the British government in Bengal, the Surkar appointed an officer termed a Dam-Dar\*, or tax gatherer, to keep a register of and to collect taxes, not only from these, but from all the other tribes of a similar description. Some say they amounted to eighteen, others to thirty-two sets, all of whom I consider as coming under the general denomination of Nut; but in statements of this kind, having no public records to resort to, I can only relate their traditions and opinions.

The dread of an intended revival of this officer's powers, caused at first much alarm among them, and operated as a considerable impediment to my enquiries. They have a strong and a very natural wish to obtain lands, which many of them have done in several parts of the country, but with no intention of being the cultivators of the soil. They have two languages peculiar to themselves, one intended for the use only of the craftsmen of the set; the other, general among men, women, and children. The Hindoostance is the basis of both; the first in general

<sup>\*</sup> This is clearly derived from dam, a small coin, and dar, a keeper, &c. This word was perhaps in use even among our forefathers, and may innocently account for the expression, "not worth a fig," or a dam, especially if we recollect that ba-dam, an almond, is to this day current in some parts of India as small money. Might not dried figs have been employed anciently in the same way, since the Arabic word fooloos, a halfpenny, also denotes a cassia bean, and the root fuls means the scale of a fish. Mankind are so apt, from a natural depravity, that "flesh is heir to," in their use of words, to pervert them from their original sense, that it is not a convincing argument against the present conjecture our using the word curse in vulgar language in lieu of dam. The shells, well known as small money under the name of kouree, often occur in the Hindoostanee, as fig; dam, farthing, sometimes with the epithet pibootee kuoree, a split farthing. Ten kourees become a dumree probably from dam,

ral being a mere transposition or change of syllables, and the second apparently a systematic conversion of a few letters, but which will be best elucidated by the following specimen:

Hindoostanee	. Nut Ist.	Nut 2d.	English.
Ag,	Ga,	Kag,	Fire.
Bans,	Suban,	Nans,	Bamboo.
Chilum,	Limchee,	Nilum,	An Oven.
Dum,	Mudu,	Num,	Breath.
Ee ad,	Dajee,	Kejad,	Remembrance.
Fuquer,	Reeqeefu,	Nuquer,	A Beggar.
G,hur,	Rug,hu,	R,hur,	House.
Hindoostan,	Dooseenatuh,	Kindoostan,	India.
d,hur,	D,huri,	Bid,hur,	Here.
ub,	Buju,	Nub,	When.
Kon,	Onk,	Ron,	Who.
Lumba,	Balum,	Kumba,	Long.
Mas,	Samu,	Nas,	Month.
Nut,	Tunu,	Kut,	A sectof people.
Omr,	Muroo,	Komr,	Age.
Peer,	Reepu,	Cheer,	Saint.
Qeella,	Laqeh,	Rulla,	A Fort.
Rooburoo,	Buroo Roo,	Kooburoo,	Opposite.
Sona,	Na-so,	Nona,	Gold.
Tulash,	Lashtu,	Nulash,	A search.
Unbuna,0,	Nunbeh,	Kunbuna,0,	Disagreement.
Waris,	Ruswa,	Quaris,	An Heir.
I find thece	naonla in 1	In Colebras	Ira'a amanaa

I find these people in Mr. Colebrooke's arrangement of the *Hindob* classes, mentioned in the 6th class, under the head of Nata, Bazeegurs, &c. and

in Sir William Jones's translation of the ordinances of (Menu) Munoo, chapter 10th, article 20, 21, 22, and 23, their origin is clearly pointed out, which the following extract will shew. "Those whom the twice-born beget on women of equal classes, but who perform not the proper ceremonies of assuming the thread, and the like, people denominated Pratyas, or excluded from the Gayatri.

son of a sinful nature, who, in different countries, is named a Bhurjacantaca, an Avantya, a Vatadhana,

a Pushpadha, and a Saicha.

"22.—From such an outcast Cshatriya comes a son called a I'halla, a Malla, a Nichhivi, a Nata, a Carana, a C'hasa, and a Dravira.

"23.—From such an outcast Paisya is born a son, called Sudhanwan, Charya, Viganman, Maitra, and

Satwata."

From the above word, Maitra, may, I imagine, be deduced the origin of the name generally applied to sweepers, and people of that description, and that the common derivation of it from the Persian word\*, Mihtur, a prince, may possibly be an error. It may be necessary to mention here, that I have in general endeavoured to follow Mr. Gilchrist's orthography in writing the Hindoostanee words.

The Panchpecree †, or Budee,a, being considered appertaining

+ This appellation may have a reference to their division into five

<sup>\*</sup> The word mub or mib, seems an important radical in many languages, disguised no doubt under other forms as ma, mu, mai, which last may be rather corruptions easily accounted for. Muba, muhta, muhta, mib, mibtur, &c. are all Oriental words denoting superiority, grandeur, command, &c. which may often be misapplied to inferior situations, either as derisive or conciliating terms; the origin therefore of maitra and mibtur, may still be the same. Mab applied to the Moon, especially with the addition of tab-light, clearly expresses the great-light among the smaller lights or Stars; Mibr in both Persian and Sunskrit applies to the Sun, and in my opinion signifies the great one, on etymological principles, that cannot be very obscure to any well informed Orientalist.

appertaining to the same class as the Bazeegurs, and equally with them, termed Nuts, I have herewith annexed a short account of them also.

The Panchpeeree, or Budee a Nuts differ from the Bazeegurs in many points; though probably in their manners there will be found a stronger similitude to the gypsies of Europe, than in those of any others

which may come under review.

They have no particular system of religion, adopting with indifference that of the village near to which they happen to be encamped; however I imagine, when left to themselves, under the impression of immediate or impending ill, the goddess Kali generally obtains the preference, indeed the influence of this deity often extends to the lower orders in Bengal, whether they be Hindoos\* or Moosulmans. The Panchpeeree† wander in companies in the same manner, and inhabit, if I may use the word, huts, of a similar form and fabrication as the Bazeegurs.

The men are remarkably athletic, and also nimble and adroit in every kind of slight of hand, practising

juggling

races, houses, or families, as peeree, occasionally seems to bear that interpretation, though it certainly may admit of others. In this place, however, it probably rather applies to these people as conformists to whatever religious system may be the order of the day in their pe-

regrinations over Hindoostan.

\* It must strike the attentive traveller with astonishment to learn in how many observances the various Moosulman tribes copy the Hindoos, and vice versa. Among the votaries of Kalee the degenerate race of Portuguese will also often be found; so powerful is the influence of moral and physical causes in the lapse of ages from the conquered on the conquerors, in spite of religious bigotry and na-

tional prejudices.

these people are frequently very regular and neat, being there formed of the Sirkee entirely. Each apartment, though not much larger than a mastiff's kennel, has its own particular enclosure or court yard, generally erected in such a manner as to become a species of circumvallation to the whole portable hamlet, which, at first sight, reminds a traveller of Lilliput or Fairy Land. The appearance of the people alone can undo the deception, and then even one cannot help

juggling in all its branches. As tumblers they exhibit not only feats of agility, but great instances of strength. There are about a hundred houses at present of these people in Calcutta, formed into five divisions; there is a Surdar to each division, one of whom, as with the Bazeegurs, is considered as the head of the whole. His revenues seem principally to arise from the offerings of strong liquor, which he receives from his dependants; they, meaning such as have attached themselves to Calcutta and its environs, seem to have nearly the same boundaries as the Bazeegurs, though there are communities of this cast spread all over Bengal, appearing under the various denomination of Cheere-Mars, Sumperas, Bundur Nachwya, Qulundur, Dukyt, &c. Many of these have become Moosulmans, and having taken up their abode in villages, gain a livelihood by exposing dancing monkies, bears, &c. to the vulgar, or by the fabrication of mats, trinkets, &c. Some of them wander about as sects of religionists, and calling themselves Moosulman Fugeers, live on the bounty of the pious followers of the prophet. They have a traditional account of four generations, and do not, like the Bazeegurs, consider themselves as foreigners in Bengal. This particular tribe of the Nuts are suspected of being great thieves; many of them I understand are daily punished for theft, and in their capacity of Dukyts \*, are no doubt often hanged.

help wondering, where so many men, women, children and other domestic animals, manage to sleep or shelter themselves from the storms which sometimes assail these itinerant people. A detailed account of the peculiar tribe, who from their occupation of taming and charming snakes, derive the name of Sumpera, might prove worthy of public attention, especially if from it we could discover whether either they or the Mungoos called Newul, are acquainted with any specific against the bite of a venomous snake, whose fangs have not been bona fide extracted, or deprived of their poisonous fluid by previous repeated exertions upon other bodies.

Daka means robbery, and in the active or agent form becomes

They also have a peculiar jargon formed upon similar principles with that of the Bazeegurs. This formation of a separate dialect conveys no very favourable impression of either of these sects, since many people may conceive it so much resembles the cant of rogues among ourselves, invented for the purpose of concealing their conduct as much as possible from honest men.

They inter their dead, and the only ceremony seems to be to forget their sorrows, by getting com-

pletely drunk immediately afterwards.

Many of the subdivisions of this class of men pay iittle or no attention to cleanliness, or any restrictions in diet, eating dead jackalls, bullocks, horses, or any kind of food procurable. Besides their usual occupation, the men collect medicinal herbs, catch mungooses, squirrels, and particularly the bird called daho: the former, if not saleable, answer admirably for a feast. The birds are dried and used as a medicine. Their women do not attend them during the exhibition of their juggling exploits, but have a peculiar department allotted to themselves, which consists of the practice of physic, cupping, palmistry, curing disorders of the teeth, and marking the skin of the Hindoo women, an operation termed Godna; they usually sally out in the morning with a quantity of the herbs and dried birds, and, begging from door to door, offer their services generally to the females only, in the cure of whose ailments they pretend to have a peculiar knowledge. Should it so happen that they do not return home before the Jackal's cry is heard in the evening, their fidelity is suspected, and

Dukyt, notorious for their depredations as pirates in the Soondurbun branches of the Gunga or Ganges, by the name of Decoits. If we may credit very respectable testimonies of the fact, these Dukyts, are frequently guilty of sacrificing human victims to Kalee, under circumstances of horror and atrocity scarcely credible.

and they subject themselves to the displeasure of their husbands, and are punished accordingly. A fault of that nature committed with any one not of

their own cast, is an unpardonable crime.

Their marriage ceremonies are as follow. parties being agreed, and the day fixed on, they assemble before the bride's house between 9 and 10 o'clock at night. The bridegroom, accompanied by all his relations, male and female, places himself before the door, near to which are fixed four plaintain trees, forming a square large enough to contain the company. He calls out with a loud voice,—"Give me my Bride." The brother, or some such near relation, guards the door, and prevents his entrance, nay, rudely pushes him away. The laugh is now general against the poor bridegroom, and many are the jokes on all hands played upon him. However, not to be put off so, he makes two more attempts, calling out all the while for his bride; which proving ineffectual, he in much seeming grief, (for the whole appears a farce,) retires and sits down in the centre of the square, and there in melancholy mood bewails his fate. When the parties conceive they have sufficiently tried the man's patience, they then intercede in his behalf with the guardian of the door, who bringing forth the bride, delivers her hand into the bridegroom's, saying, "Here is your bride, behave kindly to her:" She also receives an exhortation to conduct herself like a good and obedient wife. bridegroom now taking a little red powder, which is prepared for the occasion, makes a mark with it on her forehead, calling out "This woman is my wedded wife." The bride also marks the bridegroom's face, repeating at the same time, "This man is my husband." They sit down together, and the company arrange themselves in a circular form on each side. The little fingers of his left and her right hand being joined, they sit close together, so that their knees H H 2

knees may lap over each other. The merriment of the evening now begins, all parties dancing, singing, drinking and smoking, except the bride, who for this one day in her life is expected to refrain from the intoxicating draught. After a short space they arise, and the bridegroom, accompanied by the female part of the company, conveys the bride to the house, where the bridegroom and bride's mothers are assembled; neither of whom are permitted to appear before him this night: however, this restriction damps not the joy of the old ladies; liquor is plentifully

supplied, and they partake freely of it.

The bridegroom having rejoined the party in the square, every one sets seriously to work, and it appears now a fair trial to prove who shall most expeditiously accomplish the important business of intoxication. A little after day-light the cavalcade prepare to set off for the bridegroom's house. Whatever dowry the parents can give is now delivered, and the little fingers of this happy couple being again joined, as before described, they lead the way. Before the bridegroom's (or rather before his parent's door, it being to their house they are conducted,) stands an earthern pot filled with water, and in which is placed a small fresh branch of a mangoe tree, intended, as I should conjecture, as an emblem of plenty. The mother then comes forwards with a sieve containing a roopee, some unhusked rice, paint, and Doob grass \*. This she waves round each of their heads three times, and touches their foreheads with

This is probably one of the most common, useful, and beautiful grasses in this or any other country; and, like the cow which feeds upon it, is held in high religious veneration by many tribes of Hindoos. A natural velvet carpet, if the expression be admissible here, may at any time be formed of this elegant grass, in the space of two or three weeks, merely by chopping it in pieces, and sprinkling these on prepared ground mixed with earth. In this way the banks of rivers, pub.

it . This ceremony being performed, the bridegroom leads the bride into the house, where she is received by the old lady with many welcomes, who promises if she but conducts herself like a good wife, that she shall have all her goods and chattles when she dies. The men now assemble in front of the house. The women remain within; and a feast being prepared, the same scene of immoderate intoxication succeeds. When evening arrives, the bride goes, or is conducted, if there be a female of the party sufficiently steady to accompany her, to the hut allotted for her. - Such of the company as are able, now depart, whilst the rest, among whom the bridegroom may generally be numbered, pass the night on the plain in beastly insensibility, leaving the solitary bride to her own sober reflections. From the time their children are five or six months old, they are accustomed to imbibe strong spirits; indeed it may be said they draw it in with their mother's milk. They appear to be a most inconsiderate race of be-H H 3

lic roads, fortifications, ditches, garden walks, and marginal borders, are frequently prepared in India, upon principles which unite expedition, elegance, and strength, in one verdant sward, which, to people unac--quainted with the rapidity of vegetation in these climes, has almost the appearance of enchantment. Every lover of agriculture and rural economy at home must regret, that this charming plant has not yet been fairly tried in Europe, where it would probably yield both profit and pleasure to all its admirers. The roots are esteemed medicinal by the natives, and there can be little doubt of the nutritive quality of the whole plant considered as the food of animals. It is so well known to the Hindoostanees, and probably so often the object of attention, in the rural sports and excursions of the people or their children, that the expression doob ka chibulla, a ring of doob, is frequently introduced in their stories, to express that a petitioner did not even receive a doob ring from the person solicited, or what we might render, he did not even see the colour of his coin. As rings are exchanged at weddings by the parties, it is possible their poverty may sometimes cause them to substitute, at least pro tempore, those formed of the grass in question.

\* This circular motion, so common on such occasions in this country, is termed warna to sacrifice, and probably, from the convertibility of m with av, a mere deviation from marna to kill.

ings, never thinking of to-morrow; all their views are concentrated in the enjoyment of the present moment, and that enjoyment consisting wholly in excessive intoxication, and the grossest indulgence of

the sensual appetites.

A reference in their disputes is never made beyond their own sect, and if of so serious a nature that a small Punchaet cannot accommodate the matter, the Bura Surdar convenes a general assembly, but which assembly never enters on business until a quantity of spirits equal to the importance of the cause has been -provided by both plaintiff and defendant. The person non-suited has ultimately to bear the expence, unless, as it frequently occurs, (all parties during the discussion being indulged in a free participation of the liquor,) that the judges, plaintiff, and defendant should forget every idea of the case before them, but of that which contains the spirits. The sequel may be easily conjectured. The Puncha et disperses by degrees, and the contending parties, when aroused from the torpor of intoxication, frequently awake only to regret their own folly.

These people in the upper provinces of Hindoostan, are known by the appellation of Kunjura, whence a particular friend of mine, in speaking on the subject, conjectured might be derived our term Conjurer. Were not so great an authority as Johnson, with those scholars who derive it from conjuro \* in our way, I should almost be inclined to agree with

<sup>\*</sup> The Latin, however, has no such term from that source to express the person in question; and there was nothing to prevent the modern languages of Europe from adopting this and other vocables from the Gipsies, at the period they were wandering over it in the capacity of conjurors, &c. That derivatives are used by the moderns, which the ancients had no idea of, may safely be granted, without invalidating the consistency or probability of the present conjecture. In fact, the study of etymology, as a rational science, is still too much in its infancy to warrant the hasty condemnation of particular opinions, on the derivation of certain words, as some that at present will appear whimsical enough, may yet prove hereafter to have been well founded.

him in opinion. Be this as it may, I find a people of this kind described as living near Constantinople, who are termed Cingarees, and whose language is said to be Hindoostanee, which word, without any force beyond the fair bounds of etymology, may be

a mere deviation from Kunjura.

The Conjurors or Jugglers who arrived in Europe about the 13th century, and who introduced the viol of three strings\*, appear to have been a race almost exactly similar to what the Bazeegurs are at this day; in confirmation of which, the following extract from Doctor Burney's History of Music may not be thought inapplicable.

Extract.—" About 1330, the minstrels of Paris formed H H 4

Even this word juggler may be of Indian extraction, although there exist, according to Johnson, both French and Latin originals against it, as well as the word jug in our own tongue. Cups, jugs, mugs, might all have been used at first by conjurors in various ways, whence to juggle, as a verb, stands on nearly the same ground with handle, and many more. In the Hinduwee dialects jugg is applied to a particular act of worship, which the Bruhmuns alone can perform, and by virtue of which they pretend to acquire sometimes preternatural powers. In this way they hope for the success of their muntur or incantations, and in imitation of them, the gipsies may have preserved the name, on their arrival in the European territories, with many other mysterious customs and lofty pretensions. Juggee, juggul, juggula, jugela, juggwala, are all natural combinations to express the man so qualified, which by our ancestors could be as soon converted to juggler, as khanfaman, burga, and hoogu in modern times have been to consumer, burgher, and hooker, though we have the means of correcting such absurd corruptions, which did not exist when the gipsies first appeared in our quarter of the globe. Even admitting that we can trace much of our language up to the Latin and Greek, it remains still a doubt whether these are the stock or branches of the oldest oriental tongues.

\* The word gui-tar probably springs from si-tar, a species of viol much used now in Hindoostan, and which, though originally, as its name implies, only a three-stringed instrument, is frequently to be met with here as a four, five, six, nay seven-stringed viol. With six strings it would naturally be termed ch, hi-tar, ki-tar, progressively to gui-tar, as we now spell it, the last syllable of which clearly points out whence it ought to be derived, as tar in the Hindoostanee is a well known

word for wire, string, &c.

formed themselves into a company, and obtained a charter—the police frequently repressed their licentiousness, and regulated their conduct. Philip Augustus banished them the first year of his reign; but they were recalled by his successors, and united under the general name of Minstrelsy, having a Chiefappointed over them, who was called the King of the Minstrels. Lewis the IXth exempted them from a tariff or tell at the entrance at Paris, on condition that they would sing a song, and make their monkeys

dance to the toll-men, &c. &c.

"The associated minstrels inhabited a particular street, to which they gave the name it still retains. It was here that the public was provided with musicians for weddings and parties of pleasure. But, as a greater number of them attended such occasions than were ordered, and all expected to be paid the same price," "William de Girmont, Provost of Paris 1831, prohibited the Jungleurs and Jungleuresses from going to those, who required their performance, in greater numbers than had been stipulated, upon a severe penalty. In 1395, their libertinism and immoralities again incurred the censure of government, by which it was strictly enjoined, that they should henceforth, neither in publie or private, speak, act, or sing any thing that was indecorous or unfit for modest eyes and ears, upon pain of two months imprisonment and living upon bread and water." But let us hear one of the jug-After speaking of his glers relate his own story. power in music, he proceeds:

I from lovers tokens bear,
I can flowry chaplets weave,
Amorous belts can well prepare,
And with courteous speech deceive.
Joint stool feats to shew I'm able,
I can make the beetle run,

All alive upon the table,
When I shew delightful fun.
At my slight of hand you'll laugh,
At my magic you will stare,
I can play at quarter staff;
I can knives suspend in air,
I enchantment strange devise,
And with cord and sling surprise."

I shall now draw a short parallel between the gipsies of Europe and the people I have described.

Both the Gipsics and the Nuts are generally a wandering race of beings, seldom having a fixed habitation. They have each a language peculiar to themselves. That of the Gipsies is undoubtedly a species of *Hindoostance*, and so is that of the Nuts. In Europe it answers all the purposes of concealment. Here a conversion of its syllables becomes necessary.

The Gipsies have their king; the Nuts their Nardar Boutah; -they are equally formed into companies, and their peculiar employments are exactly similar; viz. dancing, singing, music, palmistry, quackery, dancers of monkeys, bears, and snakes. The two latter professions, from local causes, are peculiar to the Nuts. They are both considered as thieves, at least that division of the Nuts whose manners come nearest the Gipsies. In matters of religion they appear equally indifferent, and as for food, we have seen that neither the Gipsies nor Budee,a Nuts are very choice on that particular, and though I have not obtained any satisfactory proof of their eating human flesh, I do not find it easy to divest my mind of its suspicions on this head. Indeed one would think the stomach that could receive without nausea a piece of putrid jackal, could not well retain any qualms in the selection of animal food.

Though

Though in the Encyclopedia Britannica Grellman's theory is thought slightingly of, the similarity of language being deemed but inconclusive evidence, yet in this instance, even in opposition to such authority, I will venture to consider it as forming a basis of the most substantial kind. It is not the accidental coincidence of a few words, but the whole vocabulary he produces differs not so much from the common Hindoostanee, as provincial dialects of the same country usually do from each other. Grellman, from a want of knowledge in the Hindoostanee, lost many opportunities of producing the proper word in comparison with the Gipsy one.

The story of the Malabar students being rejected, upon the supposition that they, being Bruhmuns, and only conversant in Sunscrit\*, could not have understood the common Hindoostanee dialect, offers a good specimen of the kind of criticism which Grell-

man has to fear.

The following List of words, which were taken from the Annual Register of 1784-5, with a few I have now subjoined from Grellman, in some of the instances

<sup>\*</sup> It has not yet been incontestibly proved, that the Sunscrit ever was a spoken language in India, and the few Bruhmuns who now can speak it at all, seldom if ever talk that language in their own domestic concerns; on the contrary, they commonly employ the prevalent local dialect of the place, which will frequently be a species of Hindonstance. There are so very few towns, cities, or even large villages, which were ever conquered, or even much frequented by the Moosulmans, in the whole peninsula of India, wherein this colloquial language is not more or less understood, that we can scarcely conceive there are many travelling Bruhmuns who require a previous knowledge of the Sanscrit before they can understand Hindoostanee. The objection on the score of the Gypsie and Hindoostanee numbers being so different, if they really be so, might be answered by adverting to the arbitrary introduction of a new series of numerical words into some Indian dialects, where the substance of any particular speech in question will be found to agree, almost in every thing but number, with many other tongues from the same source.

instances where he has failed of producing the corresponding *Hindoostance* one, will I hope prove the language of the *Gipsies*, and that of *Hindoostance*, to be the same, or very intimately connected with each other \*.

Gipsy.	Hindoostanee.	English.
Apra,	Oopur,	Above.
Bebee,	Beebee,	Aunt, a respectful fe-
		minine appellation,
		from Baba, father.
Pownee,	Panee,	Brook, drink, water,
1	UN TOTAL	tears.
Cauliban,	Kala-burn,	Black, a black colour.
Chericloe,	Chiree,a,	Bird.
Per,	Peroo,	Belly, the lower part
sand guntilessin	THE PARTY OF THE P	of the belly.
Jamoval eo panee	Panee,	A Bath, water to bathe.
drowei paneeja 1e	Jul,	Ditto.
Davies, devus,	Dewus,	Day, to day.
Rattie,	Rat,	Dark, night.
Peola,	Peena.	To drink.
Can,	Kan,	Ear.
Dad,	Dada,	Father, Grand-father.
Jag,	Ag,	Fire.
	The state of the s	

<sup>\*</sup> Should any real Hindoostanee scholars ever investigate this matter on the spot in Europe, their evidence and observations will probably settle the matter effectually, one way or other, for ever.

Gipsy.	Hindoostanee,	English.
Peroe,	Pyr,	Foot.
Valashtee,	Bilisht,	Finger, a span.
Por,	Pöör,	Full.
Mutchee,	Muchee,	Fish.
Bootsee,	Buhotsee (in the fe- minine,)	Great, a great deal.
Gur,	G,hur,	House.
Shing,	Seeng,	Horn.
Ballow,	Bal,	Hair.
Tattoo,	Tutta,	Heat, hot.
Yacorah,	Yek G, hurce,	An hour.
Bocolee,	B, hook, ha,	Hungry.
Shunalee,	Soona,ee,	Hearing.
Gecoa,	Jee, or Jee 100, jee 100-	Life, living.
and more self.	ka,	
Liecaw,	Lik ha;	Letters, any thing writ-
distribute a real		ten.
Riah,	Raje,	Lord.
Rriena,	Rajenee, Ranee,	Lady.
Dai,	Dajee,	Mother, a nurse.
Mass,	Mas,	Meat or food, flesh
Tod,	Dood,h,	Milk.
Boot,	Buhot,	Much, numbers.
Nack,	Nak,	Nose.
Nie,	Nuh,	Nail of the finger.
Nevo,	Ny ia, nou,	New.
Bouropanee,	Bura panee,	Ocean, sea, wave; the
CANAL STATE		great water.

 $Gipsy. \$  CC-0. Gurukul Kangri University Haridwar Collection. Digitized by S3 Foundation USA

## A SECT COMMONLY DENOMINATED NUTS. 477

Gipsy. Hindoostanec. English.

Rashee, Rishee, Priest; a saint or holy

man.

Briskinee, Burk, ha, burushna, Rain, to rain, from the

Sunskrit vurshun-

ung.

Doriove, Durec,a, River.

Lolo, Lal, Red.

Bauro-chairee, Burec chhooree, Sword, a great knife.

Pan and Pon, Buhin, Sister, B is often inter-

changeable with Pin

the Hindsostanee.

Roop, Roopa, Silver.

Starrie, Sitara, tara, Star.

Sep and Sap, Samp, surp, Serpent.

Dicken, Dakhna, Sight, to sec.

Loon, lon, Salt.

Banaw, Baloo, Sand.

Chive, Jeebb, Tongue, chis often in-

terchangeable with j,

and v with b.

Rook, Rook,h, Tree.

Dennam, Dundan, dant, Tooth.

Chalk, Kaka or Chucha, Uncle.

Panee, Panee, Water.

Jaw, Ana jana, Towalk, to come, togo.

Bouro Matchee, Buree Muchee, Whale, a large fish.

Kalicoe, Kul-ko, Yesterday, with the postposition.

Gipsy.

Gipsy.	Hindoostanee.	English.
* Tober,	Tubl,	An Ax.
Tschor,	Chor,	A Thief,
Dori,	Dori,	A band or string.
Rajah,	Rajah,	A Lord or Chief.
Ranee,	Ranee,	Princess.
Raz,	Raj,	Principality.
Banduk,	Bundoog,	A Musket. ·
Gan Jagga,	Gawn, Juggah,	A Village or Place.
Jammadar,	Jemmadar,	A Commander or Of,
Parameter		ficer.
Wesch,	Whaisha,	Forest or Wild.
Gour,	Gor,	The Grave.
Mul,	Mool,	Wine.
Latcho,	Acho,	Good.
Dur,	Dorr,	Far.
Perdo,	Poordo,	To fill up, to accom-
		plish.
Cha, Chabben,	Kihana, Chabbna,	To cat.
Ischummedele,	Chooma Detee,	She kisses.
Jungustri,	Ungooshturee,	A Ring.
Aro,	Ard,	Meal.
Paka,	Punk,h,	A Wing.
Schut vinegar,	Khutta,	Sour.
Ker,	Ghur,	House.
Sapa,	Saboon,	Soap.
Aduito,	Dotuh,	Double.
		Cinca

Gipsy.

<sup>\*</sup> The following are from Grellman's Vocabulary, and consequently often incorrect.

#### A SECT COMMONLY DENOMINATED NUTS. 479

Gipsy.	Hindoostance.	English.
Tatip,	Tapna,	To warm.
Surgawa,	Soonghna,	To smell.
Gewawa,	Gana,	To sing.
Mongna,	Mongna,	To solicit.
Pi,	Peena,	To drink.
Metschana,	Puh, channa,	To know.
Medikkaha,	Myn deekat ha,	I saw.

There can be no doubt that many others might be selected, were it necessary to add more proofs of the identity or intimate connection of the Gipsy and Hindoostanee languages here.

### XX.

On the Burmha Game of Chess, compared with the Indian, Chinese, and Persian Game of the same denomination.

## BY THE LATE CAPTAIN HIRAM COX.

Communicated in a Letter from him to J. H. HARINGTON, Esq.

#### DEAR SIR,

I HAVE now the pleasure to send you a drawing of the Burmha chess table, with the pieces arranged according to the ordinary mode of playing the game; and subjoin an account of the Burmha-game, with a comparative view of the Indian, Chinese, and Persian games; and should it appear to you worthy of notice, I have to request you will do me the favor to lay it before the society.

It has been said that an accurate judgment may be formed of any society from a view of the amusements of the people; this is one of those sweeping assertions which indolence too often induces us to admit without sufficient examination, and however true in a general sense, is little applicable to the purposes of life, for it often, indeed generally, happens, as in Lavater's System of Physiognomy, one feature counteracts the effects of another, so as to perplex the whole, and defeat the end of enquiry.

Are the gay airy Parisians, heretofore so celebrated for polish, and so conversant in the cant of philauthropy, more humane than our rough countrymen,

who

who have been stigmatized as sanguinary, from their delighting in boxing, cock-fighting, and bear-baiting?—But instances of contradictions of this kind between particular habits, and general character in every nation, must be too familiar to you to require illustration by further examples; and I am sure you will agree with me, that it is the wisest and safest course to avoid forming general conclusions from partial views.

A member does not form a whole; and who has the means of examining and comparing all the parts of so stupendous a system, as forms the history and character of man, even in the meanest of the subdivisions of society? We therefore must not conclude that the Burmhas are a scientific or intelligent people, because they play chess; nor that they are brutally savage, because they sometimes eat the flesh

of their enemies.

Chess, by universal consent, holds the first rank among our sedentary amusements, and its history has employed the pens of many eminent men. Among the number, Sir William Jones has obliged the world with an essay replete as usual with erudition and information. But while I avow the warmest admiration of his talents, and subscribe with all due deference to his authority, I must be allowed to acknow-

ledge a difference of sentiment.

Sir William says, "The beautiful simplicity and extreme perfection of the game, as it is commonly played in Europe and Asia, convinces me that it was invented by one effort of some great genius, not completed by gradual improvements, but formed, to use the phrase of Italian critics, by the first inten-But it appears to me that all he afterwards adduces on the subject is so far from corroborating, that it is in direct contradiction of this opinion, and I trust my further combating it will neither be deem-

ed impertinent nor invidious. The errors of a great mind are, of all others, the most material to be guarded against; and Sir William himself, had he lived to reconsider the subject. I am sure would have been the first to expunge a passage of so unqualified construction. Perfection has been denied us undoubtedly for wise purposes, and progression is necessary to the happiness of our existence. No human invention is so perfect but it may be improved, and no one is, or has been, so great, but another may be greater.

I have elsewhere had occasion to observe, that, generally speaking, nature is slow, silent, and uniform in all her operations; and I am induced to think, that what is true of the material world, equally holds as to the intellectual. In this opinion I am supported by the testimony of Sir Isaac Newton, who, with equal modesty and truth, replied to one of his admiring friends, that if he surpassed others in his attainments, he owed it entirely to a patient habit of thinking. All great efforts are violations of the order of nature, and, as such, are rather to be deprecated than admired. In common language they are called convulsions, and I confess myself opposed to convulsions of every kind.

Sir William Jones's evidence goes to confirm the opinion that we are indebted to the Hindoos for the game of chess; but the description of the game which he has given from the Bhawishya Puran has nothing of that beautiful simplicity which called forth his admiration. Indeed he admits, that the Indian game, described by him, is more complex; and he considers it more modern than the simple game of the Persians, of which he could not find any account in the writings of the Brahmans.

He informs us that the Sanscrit name is Chaturanga, and the root from which the name of the oame

jame is derived in modern languages. It literally horses, chariots, and foot soldiers, the same as exhibited at this day; but the game described by him is more generally known by the name of Chatúráji, by four persons representing as many princes, two allied armies combating on each side." The board is quadrilateral, with sixty-four checks as ours; but what forms one army with us, is divided in two, each having its king, elephant, horse, and boat, with four foot soldiers in front, placed at the left hand angle of each face of the board. The power of the king is the same as in the modern game; the elephant has the same powers as the English queen, moving at will in all directions; the horse the same as the modern horse or knight; the boat as the modern bishop, with the limitation of moving only two checks at once; the peon the same as the modern pawn.

This game is mentioned in the oldest law books, and is said to have been invented by the wife of Ravan, king of Lanca, (i. e. Ceylon,) in order to amuse him with an image of war (field war I suppose is meant,) while his metropolis was closely besieged by Rama, in the second age of the world. Rama\*, according to Sir William Jones's Chronology of the Hindoos, appeared on earth at least three thousand eight hundred years ago; and this event happened in

\* The high degree of polish which prevailed at the court of Ravan, at this early period, is well worthy notice. In a copy from an ancient Hindso painting which I possess, his capital appears to be regularly fortified in the antique style, with projecting round to wers and battlements, and he is said to have defended it with singular ability; hence he and his people were called magicians and giants, for to the invading Rama, and his hordes of Barbarian mountaineers, called in derision latyrs or monkeys, his science must have appeared supernatural. It fact, Ravan appears to have been the Archimides of Lanca.

ed impertinent nor invidious. The errors of a great mind are, of all others, the most material to be guarded against; and Sir William himself, had he lived to reconsider the subject. I am sure would have been the first to expunge a passage of so unqualified construction. Perfection has been denied us undoubtedly for wise purposes, and progression is necessary to the happiness of our existence. No human invention is so perfect but it may be improved, and no one is, or has been, so great, but another may be greater.

I have elsewhere had occasion to observe, that, generally speaking, nature is slow, silent, and uniform in all her operations; and I am induced to think, that what is true of the material world, equally holds as to the intellectual. In this opinion I am supported by the testimony of Sir Isaac Newton, who, with equal modesty and truth, replied to one of his admiring friends, that if he surpassed others in his attainments, he owed it entirely to a patient habit of thinking. All great efforts are violations of the order of nature, and, as such, are rather to be deprecated than admired. In common language they are called convulsions, and I confess myself opposed to convulsions of every kind.

Sir William Jones's evidence goes to confirm the opinion that we are indebted to the Hindoos for the game of chess; but the description of the game which he has given from the Bhawishya Puran has nothing of that beautiful simplicity which called forth his admiration. Indeed he admits, that the Indian game, described by him, is more complex; and he considers it more modern than the simple game of the Persians, of which he could not find any account in the writings of the Brahmans.

He informs us that the Sanscrit name is Chaturanga, and the root from which the name of the oame

pame is derived in modern languages. It literally peans the four members of an army, elephants, horses, chariots, and foot soldiers, the same as exhibited at this day; but the game described by him is more generally known by the name of Chatúráji, or the four kings, since, he observes, "it is played by four persons representing as many princes, two allied armies combating on each side." The board is quadrilateral, with sixty-four checks as ours; but what forms one army with us, is divided in two, each having its king, elephant, horse, and boat, with four foot soldiers in front, placed at the left hand angle of each face of the board. The power of the king is the same as in the modern game; the elephant has the same powers as the English queen, moving at will in all directions; the horse the same as the modern horse or knight; the boat as the modern bishop, with the limitation of moving only two checks at once; the peon the same as the modern pawn.

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in an early part of his career; yet notwithstanding these proofs of antiquity and originality, Sir William Jones was of opinion that this rudimental and complex game is a more recent invention than the refined game of the Persians and Europeans; which he also states to have been certainly invented in India, and appears, therefore, to have considered the original. But, to admit this, would, I conceive, be inverting the usual order of things.

Two other distinctions are remarkable of the Hindoo game; the introduction of a ship or boat amongst troops, &c. embattled on a plain; and the use of dice, which determine the moves, and, as Sir William justly observes, exclude it from the rank which has been assigned to chess among the sciences.

In respect to the first of these distinctions, I cannot help suspecting a mistake in translating the passage, which I must leave to abler critics to decide. In explaining the meaning of Chatur-anga, Sir William says, "that is the four angas or members of an army, which are said in the Amaracosha to be, Hasty aswa ratha padatam, or elephants, horses, chariots, and foot soldiers." And the same names are used in India at this day\*.

Sir William notices the Chinese game as having a river described on the board, which the Indian board has not; and seems to infer that a ship or boat might be introduced in the Chinese game with propriety. Hence a query might arise whether the Indian board, as now used, is the ancient one appropriate to the game, in which a boat is said to be introduced instead of a chariot; but in the Chinese game, of which I have an account before me, although what is erroneously termed a river is delineated on the board, yet there is no ship or boat among the pieces.

Instead

<sup>\*</sup> See note at the end of this paper.

Instead of a boat, they have a chariot. How are we to reconcile these contradictions?—I fear, in the present state of our information, they are inexplicable. At all events I shall attempt only as distinct an account as is in my power of the four principal games and modes of playing chess in Asia, viz. first, the one from the Purans, cited by Sir William Jones as above; second, the Chinese, described by Mr. Irwin; third, the Burmha; and lastly, the Persian or present Hindoostanee; comparing them with each other and the English game; and must leave it to some more fortunate enquirer to determine which is the

original.

I have given precedence to the game said to be invented at Lanca, as it appears to be the most ancient, according to the authorities adduced by Sir William Jones; and as the Persians admit that they received the game from India. I am aware that the honourable Mr. Daines Barrington, in a paper published in the Archæologia at London, gives it as his opinion that the Chinese game is the most ancient; and has taken great pains to disprove the Grecian claim to the invention, (vide 9th volume of the Archæologia.) But, according to the Chinese manuscript, accompanying Mr. Irwin's account in the Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy, the Chinese invalidate their claim of originality, by fixing the date of the game, they assume the honour of inventing, 174 years before the Christian era.

# Ancient Hindoo Game of Chess. TABLE.

TABLE.

		History.	40.8	NOR	тн.		Black	army	
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Yellow army	သ	v	ens. (sign		S	s	S	S	
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30	5	5	5	5			5	3	
-d	4	3	2	1			S	4	1
				SOU	TH.				

#### REFERENCES.

- The King or Raja.

  The Elephant or Hasti.
- 3 The Horse or Aswa.
- 4 The Boat or Nauca.
- or The Chariot or Ratha.
  5 The Pawns or Padata.

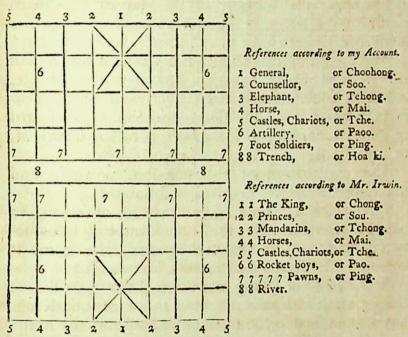
Green army

In the Hindoo game, I have already noticed, that the principal distinction from the English consists in having four distinct armies and kings; each army composed of half the number of pieces and pawns used in one of ours: secondly, the elephant holds the station and power of our queen; thirdly, there is a boat instead of our castle, but with the powers of a bishop limited to a move of two checks at once; fourthly, the pawn or peon has not an optional rank when advanced to the last line of the adversary's checks, merely assuming the rank of the piece whose place he possesses (excepting the boat); fifthly, the use of dice to determine the moves, as follows: When a cinque is thrown, the king or pawn must be moved; a quatre, the elephant; a trois, the horse; and a deux, the boat. Other variations are, that the king, elephant, and horse may slay, but cannot be slain; neither does it appear that the king can be

be removed to a place of more security, by any operation similar to the modern mode of castling. Indeed the mode of playing this game is very obscurely described; all that is known of it has already been published by Sir William Jones, in the Transactions of the Society, to which I must refer those who require further information.

## Account of the Chinese Game of Chess.

#### TABLE.



Mr. Irwin's account I shall give in his own words as follows:—"The very next day my Mandarin brought me the board and equipage; and I found that the Brahmins were neither mistaken touching the board, which has a river in the middle to divide the contending parties, nor in the powers of the King, who is entrenched in a fort, and moves only in that space in every direction; but, what I did not hear before, nor do I believe is known out of this country, (China,) there are two pieces whose move-

14

ments

ments are distinct from any in the Indian or European game. The Mandarin, which answers to our Bishop in his station and side-long course, cannot, through age, cross the river; and a Rocket boy, still used in the Indian armies, who is stationed between the lines of each party, acts literally with the motion of the Rocket, by vaulting over a man, and taking his adversary at the other end of the board. Except that the King has his two sons to support him, instead of a Queen, the game in other respects is like ours, as will appear in the plan of the board and pieces I have the honour to enclose, together with directions to place the men and play the game."

The preceding diagram is the Chinese table, and lifters from ours by having a chasm in the middle, called by some a river, and the crossed sections or forts in which move the Chong and Sou. The board or game, according to Mr. Irwin, is called Chong-ki,

or royal game.

The explanation of the position, powers, and

moves of the pieces, he gives as follows:

"As there are nine pieces instead of eight, to occupy the rear rank, they stand on the lines between, and not within, the squares; the game is consequently played on the lines.

this row; his moves resemble those of our King, but are confined to the fortress marked out for him.

"The two Princes, or Sou, stand on each side of

him, and have equal powers and limits.

"The Mandarins, or Tchong, answer to our Bishops, and have the same moves, except that they cannot cross the water, or white space in the middle of the board, to annoy the enemy, but stand on the defensive.

"The Knights, or rather horses, called Mai,

stand and move like ours in every respect.

"The War Chariots, or Tche, resemble our rocks or castles."

"The Rocket Boys, or Pao, are pieces whose motions and powers were unknown to us. They act with the direction of a rocket, and can take none of their adversary's men that have not a piece or pawn intervening. To defend your men from this attack, it is necessary to open the line between either, to take off the check on the King, or to save a man from being captured by the Pao. Their operation is otherwise like that of the rook, their stations

are marked between the pieces and pawns.

"The five Pawns, or Ping, make up the number of men equal to that of our board (i. e. sixteen). Instead of taking sideways like ours, they have the rook's motion, except that it is limited to one step, and is not retrograde. Another important point in which the Ping differs from ours, is that they continue in statu quo after reaching their adversary's head quarters. It will appear, however, that the Chinese pieces far exceed the proportion of ours, which occasions the whole force of the contest to fall on them, and thereby precludes the beauty and variety of our game, when reduced to a struggle between the pawns, who are capable of the highest promotion, and often change the fortune of the day. The posts of the Ping are marked in front."

So far Mr. Irwin. His account being, according to my apprehension, indistinct and incomplete, and to my knowledge in some respects erroneous, I have been induced to make further inquiries on the subject, the result of which, I hope, will supply his deficiencies, or at least give us a more accurate idea of

the Chinese game.

The game is called by the Chinese Choke-choo-hong-ki, literally the play of the science of war.

The piece 1, which we call the King, is named Choohong, which may be rendered the scientific in war, or generalissimo; he moves one pace at a time in any direction, the same as our King, but within the limits of his fort.

The two pieces of next rank, No. 2. 2. are called Sou by the Chinese, which literally means bearded old men, or men of great experience in war. These are supposed to act as counsellors to the Choohong, and have precisely the same moves and powers as the Chekoy in the Burmha, or Vizier in the Persian game, except that they are confined to the limits of

the fort with the Choohong.

The two pieces, No. 3. 3. crroneously named Mandarins by Mr. Irwin, are called Tchong by the Chinese, which means an elephant; and they have precisely the same moves and powers as the elephant in the Persian and modern Hindoostanee game. That is, they move diagonally in advance or retrograde, always two steps at a move; but the Chinese Tchong has not the power of jumping over the head of an intermediate piece as the Persian elephant does; neither can it advance beyond the limits of its own section, for a reason I shall assign below.

The two pieces, No. 4. 4. are called Mái by the Chinese, meaning horse or cavalry; they have precisely the same moves and powers as in the English and Persian games, and can advance into the ene-

my's section.

The two pieces, No. 5. 5. are called *Tche* by the Chinese, meaning war chariots, and have the same powers and moves as the rooks or castles in the European game, advancing also into the enemy's section.

The two pieces, No. 6. 6. are called Paoo by the Chinese, meaning artillery or rocket men. The Paoo can move the whole range of both sections direct, transverse, or retrograde, like the English castle, and if any of the adversary's pieces or pawns intervene in the direct line, he takes the one immediately in the rear of it.

The pawns, No. 7. 7. 7. 7. are called Ping by the Chinese, meaning foot soldiers; they move one square or step at a time, direct in advance, and take their

their antagonist transversely to the right or left, (not diagonally as ours do,) nor have they the advantage of obtaining an advance rank as in the English game.

The blank space in the Table 8. 8. is called Hoa ki by the Chinese, which literally means a trench, and is understood to have been made for defence against an invading army. The horses, chariots, and foot soldiers are supposed to cross it by means of light bridges of planks; but these not being adequate to bear the bulk of the elephants, they are reciprocally obliged to remain within the limits of their respective sections.

In other respects the game is like the English one, and ends with destroying the forces on either side, or blocking up the Choohong. The board is not chequered black and white, but merely subdivided, as in the diagram: the pieces are round counters of wood or ivory, with the distinguishing names wrote on them, half dyed red, and half black.

## Account of the Burmha Game of Chess.

## TABLE.

3		178					3
	1	4	5	5			
	4	2	6	6	6	6	6
6	6	6	1	/			
			/	1	6	6	6
6	6	6	6	6	2	4	
			5	5	4	I	
3			113				3

#### RFFERENCES.

r. Meng, -		- The king.
2. Chekoy, -		- Lieut. Gen.
3. 3. Rutha,		- War chariots.
4. 4. Chein,	-	- Elephants.
5. 5. Mhee,	66	- Cavalry,

The .

The Burmha name for the game of chess is chittha-reen, a term applied by them either to a generalissimo, or warfare; an etymologist perhaps might trace it as a corruption of the Sanscrit Cha-tur-anga.

The annexed drawing and diagram will best explain the form of the pieces, &c. and ordinary array

of the battalia.

No. 1. Ming, or the king, has the same moves and powers as in the English game, except that he cannot castle, neither do they admit of what we call stale mate.

No 2. Chekoy, or sub-general; he moves diagonally either way in advance or retrograde, but limit-

ed to one check or step at a move.

No. 3. 3. Rut'ha, war chariot; they have exactly the same moves and powers as the English castle or

rook.

No. 4. 4. Chein, elephants; they have five distinct moves; direct 1. diagonal in advance 2. diagonal retrograde 2. but limited to one check or step at a move; they slay diagonally only; the move direct in advance being only intended to alter the line of their operations, so that they may occasionally have the powers of our king's or queen's bishop.

No. 5. 5. Mhee, cavalry; they have exactly the

same moves and powers as in the English game. -

No. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. Yein, or foot soldiers; they have the same moves and powers as in the English game, except that they are limited to one check or step at a move, and that the right-hand pieces only are susceptible of promotion to the rank of chekoy, (in the event of his being taken.) It is not necessary for this promotion that they should have advanced to the last row of the adversary's checks, but to that check which is in a diagonal line with the left-hand check in the last row of the adversary's section; consequently the right hand pawn or yein, according to the diagram, will have to advance four steps to obtain the rank of chekoy; the 2d yein 3 steps;

steps; the 3d yein, 2 steps; the 4th yein, 2 steps;

and the 5th yein, 1 step.

Although the array of the battalia is generally as in the diagram, yet the Burmhas admit of great variations; each party being allowed to arrange their pieces ad libitum; that is to say, they may strengthen either wing, or expose the king, according as they estimate each others abilities, or as caprice or judgement may influence them. In some respects this is tantamount to our giving a piece to an inferior player, but the variation is only to be understood of the pieces, and not of the pawns.

This liberty, added to the names and powers of the pieces, gives the Burmha game more the appearance of a real battle than any other game I know of. The powers of the Chein are well calculated for the defence of each other and the King, where most vulnerable; and the Rutha or war chariots are certainly more analogous to an active state of warfare

than rooks or castles.

Persian and modern Hindoostanee Game of Chess.
TABLE.

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-	5	4	3	1/2	X	3	4	5
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					12/5	-8		,
				99 h			_	
-	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
-	5	4	3	>>	X	.3	4	+5

#### REFERENCES.

Sha or Padsha, The King.
Vizier or Firz, General.

Fil or Hust, Elephant.

Aspor Ghora, Cavalry or Horse
Rookh or Ruth, War Chariot.

6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6, Piadah or footmen.

The

The Persian game and table are both called Shatrang, or more commonly Shutrunj, the form of the table and arrangement of the pieces as in the diagram.

No. 1. Sha, or Padsha. The king has the same moves and powers as in the English game, but can-

not castle, nor is stale mate admitted.

No. 2. Firz, or more commonly Vizier, the general. It is the first piece moved on opening the game, advancing one step direct in front, his piadah moving one step at the same time; this is said to be done by command of the king, that he may review and regulate the motions of the army; afterwards he can only move diagonally, in advance or retrograde, one check or step at a move, the same as the Burmha chekoy.

No. 3. 3. Fil in Persic, Hust in Hindoostanee, elephants. They move diagonally in advance or retrograde, always two steps at a move, and have, what Mr. Irwin calls, the motion of a rocket boy hopping over the head of any piece in their way, except the king, and taking any piece which stands on the se-

cond check from them in their range.

No. 4. 4. Asp, Persian, or Ghora, Hindoostanee, horse or cavalry; they have the same moves and powers as the English knight.

No. 5. 5. Rookh, Persian, or Rut'h, Hindoostanee, war chariots; they have exactly the same moves and

powers as the English rook or castle.

No. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. 6. Piadahs, or peons, footmen; they have the same moves and powers as the English pawn, except that they advance only one step at a time on opening the game, and that when any of them arrive at the last line of checks on their adversary's section, should their own general have been taken, they are then called firz, and distinguished by a pawn of the adversary being placed on the same square with them.

When the king is checked by another piece, they

esay shah, shah, or kist, (the latter an Arabic word;) and when check-mated, they say shah-mat, which means the king is conquered or driven to the last distress; or sometimes boord or burd, the prize is gained or carried, though this expression is more generally used when all the pieces are taken except the king, and the game is consequently won.

I shall now make some observations on the foregoing games, and compare them with each other.

As far as record is to be admitted in evidence, the first, or *Hindoo* game, above described, is the most ancient, and, to my apprehension, it has great internal marks of antiquity, namely, the imperfections incident to rudimental science.

A view of the table, &c. will be sufficient to convince any one who has the least knowledge of tactics, or the science of chess, of the imperfections of

the Hindoo game.

The weakest flank of each army is opposed to its antagonist's forte-and the piece in each army which would be of most use on the flanks, is placed in a situation where its operations are cramped; and although it appears that two armies are allied against the other two, yet the inconvenience of their battalia in a great measure remains; besides, it also appears that each separate army has to guard against the treachery of its ally, as well as against the common enemy; for it is recommended, and allowed to either of the kings, to seize on the throne of his ally, that he may obtain complete command of both armies, and prosecute conquest for himself alone. But if the battalia were as perfect as in the European game, the circumstance of using dice, to determine the moves, is fatal to the claim of pre-eminence, or of science, which attaches to the European game, and places the ancient Hindoo game on a level with back-gammon, in which we often see the most consummate abilities defeated by chance.

Exclusive

Exclusive of the definition of the game in the Amaracosha, namely, that the four angas or members are elephants, horses, chariots, and foot soldiers, there are contradictions in the rules given by Gotoma and others translated by Rad-ha-cant, which are irreconcilable, unless we suppose they treat of different games. The first says, that "the king, the elephant, and the horse may slay the foe, but cannot expose themselves to be slain." Hence we infer that the ship and foot soldier alone are vulnerable. In another place the commentator says, "If a pawn can march to any square on the opposite extremity of the board, except that of the king or ship, he assumes whatever power belonged to that square, which promotion is called shat-pada, or six strides." This contradicts the former rule. And again, "but this privilege of shat-pada was not allowable in the opinion of Gotoma; when a player had three pawns on the chess board, but when only one pawn, and one ship remained, the pawn might even advance to the square of a king or ship, and assume the power of either." From the whole we may gather, that in this game there is much abstruseness with little science, which affords strong presumption of its being rudimental.

I have placed the Chinese game the second in the series, because there is a record of its relative antiquity; but not from conviction, for the next improvement of the ancient *Hindoo* game appears to me to be that which at present obtains amongst the *Burmhas*, who are *Hindoos* of the *Pali* tribe, and derive all their literature and science from the common source. \* In the *Burmha* game the first dawn

<sup>\*</sup> The chess men. I had made at Amarapoorah, the Burmha capital, were the workmanship of some Cossays, natives of the kingdom of Munipore, who, as well as the Burmhas, are of the sect of Budda, and form the intermediate link between them and the Bengallies.

of perfection appears, while the ancient Hindoo names, according to the Amaracosha, are retained, the two armies are consolidated, and commanded by a general immediately under the eye of the king, the order of the battalia improved, and chance rejected.

The Persian game is but a slight variation in principle from the Burmha; the order of battle is restrained to one mode, and the foot soldiers and principals each drawn up at the extreme face of the board or field of battle, in rank entire, according to the improved system of modern warfare. Other alterations appear to me adventitious, or the effect of caprice rather than judgment.

The modern European game appears an improvement on the Persian, and only requires that the original names should be restored to the pieces to give

it full claim to pre-eminence.

I am at a loss where to place the Chinese game, but its claims to precedence are of little importance.

The account of its invention, for which we are

indebted to Mr. Eyles Irwin, is as follows:

"Translation of an extract from the Concum, or Chinese Annals, respecting the invention of the game of chess, delivered to me by Tonqua, a soldier

mandarin of the province of Tokien."

"Three hundred and seventy years after the time of Confucius, or 1965 years ago, (174 years before Christ,) Hung Cochee, king of Kiangnan, sent an expedition into the Shensi country, under the command of a mandarin, called Hemsing, to conquer it. After one successful campaign, the soldiers were put into winter quarters, where finding the weather much colder than what they had been accustomed to \*, and being also deprived of their wives and families,

<sup>\*</sup> Shensi is the north west province of China, and mountainous.

the army in general became impatient of their situation, and clamorous to return home. Hemsing, upon this, revolved in his mind the bad consequences of complying with their wishes; and the necessity of soothing his troops and reconciling them to their position appeared urgent, in order to finish his operations the ensuing year. He was a man of genius as well as a good soldier, and having contemplated some time on the subject, he invented the game of chess, as well for an amusement to his men in their vacant hours, as to inflame their military ardour, the game being wholly founded on the principles of war. The stratagem succeeded to his wish; the soldiery were delighted with the game, and forgot in their daily contests for victory the inconvenience of their post. In the spring the general took the field again, and in a few months added the rich country of Shensi to the kingdom of Kiangnan, by the defeat and capture of Choupayen, a famous warrior among the Chinese. On this conquest Hung Cochee assumed the title of emperor, and Choupayen put an end to his own life in despair."

In the course of my reading I have met with a similar tale among the Persians; but such tales are easily fabricated, and from the complaisance of na-

tional vanity as easily credited.

That Hansing introduced this game with modifications suited to the genius and manners of the Chinese for the purposes ascribed above, I can readily believe; but the introduction of artillery or rocket boys, the general perfection of the game, similitude to the *Hindoo game*, and date of the supposed invention, are strong evidences against its originality.

I am aware that there are many other games of chess played in Asia; but I consider them merely as anomalies, unimportant or unworthy of note; and

the four I have adduced are the principal, to which all the others may be referred.

I shall conclude this long and irregular dissertation with noticing the various etymologies of the

terms, pieces, &c. &c.

The Honourable Mr. Daines Barrington has taken considerable pains on this subject in the essay above noticed; and the reason he assigns for the uncouth form of the pieces as made in Europe is very just, viz. that we received the game from the Arabs, who, as Mahomedans, being prohibited the use of paintings or engraved images, merely gave to their chess pieces such distinct forms as enabled them to readily recognize them in play; and such arbitrary variation being once introduced, others naturally followed, according to the caprice or taste of each new innovator.

But he differs from Doctor Hyde and Sir William Jones in respect to our Exchequer being named from the chess-table; proving that the term was not directly so derived; but that is not proving it was not derived indirectly; for although the game of chess might not have been known to the nations of modern Europe, so early as the Norman Conquest; yet it appears from the check or reckoning board found at *Pompeii*, and from the Latin name Scaccario, that the use of the table was very early known in Europe; and therefore Sir William Jones may still be right in deriving exchequer from *Chaturanga*. One remarkable coincidence in the Asiatic tables may be noticed; they are all subdivided into sixty-four squares, but not checkered.

The piece we call the King is also so styled in all the games that I know, except the Chinese, who call

it the Chooking, or scientific in war.

The piece we call the Queen, the honourable Mr. K & 2 Barrington

Barrington derives from the Persian pherz or general; and exposes the absurdity of calling this piece a queen, by asking how we are to metamorphose a foot soldier or pawn into a queen, as admitted in the English game, &c. Sir William Jones more correctly writes it ferz, and adds "hence the French bave derived vierge &c."-If so, the blunder arises from French gallantry. Vierge in French is virgo, and consorted with the king they by a very natural transition made their virgin a queen. But whence the Persian title of ferz? Mr. Richardson merely informs us that ferz, ferzeen, ferzan, and ferzee, mean the queen at chess. The common term for this piece in the Persian language is vizeer or vuzeer a minister, but in their emphatic way of writing and speaking, they have in this case made a noun substantive of a distinctive adjective, to denote the eminence of the piece, as I shall have further occasion to notice. Ferz or ferzan, therefore, neither means queen nor general in a literal sense; but eminent, distinguished, &c. Ferzee further means science, learning, wisdom, &c.

The piece we call a Castle or Rook, the Honourable Mr. Barrington says, is derived from the Italian il rocco—but what is il rocco (the castle) derived from? Sir William Jones says, "it were in vain to seek an etymology of the word rookh in the modern Persian language, for in all the passages extracted from Ferdausi and Jami where Rokh is conceived to mean a hero, or a fabulous bird, it signifies, I believe, no more than a cheek or face."—My enquiries teach me that in this instance also a name has been formed from a quality; and that in modern Persian rookh means facing or bearing in a direct line; and applied to the rookh at chess, and its moves, is very appropriate; at the same time I have no doubt

that

that the Persian word was originally derived with the game from the Hindoos, who call the piece roth and rutha; and denominate the ship or boat, which is substituted for the castle, either naucá or róca. The corruption is as easy as the French vierge from pherz or ferz, and the only difference is, that Persian pride has endeavoured to legitimise the blunder by assigning a reason for it.

The pieces we call bishops, the Hon Mr. Daines Barrington says, are called by the French fou or fools, and supposes the epithet to have been bestowed on them by some wag, because kings and queens were

anciently attended by fools.

I am ready to admit that war is but too often the offspring of vice and folly, and that it is no great proof of wisdom in bishops to forsake their habits of peace for war, but think it is refining a little too much, to stigmatise them in particular as fools on that account.—Sir William Jones, in my opinion, adduces a more legitimate derivation, supposing the fol or fou of the French (for it is pronounced both ways occasionally) to be derived from the Persian fil or feel, an elephant. In Italian these pieces are still denominated il alsino or the elephant, and so they were in England at the beginning of the seventeenth century .- Perhaps the French fou may have been derived from the Chinese fou, the grave councillors who attend on the choohong or general, and who have the same diagonal moves as the bishops; and their mandarin caps may have been changed with their names for mitres, as we now see them engraved.

The pieces we call knights or horses have in ge-

neral the same appellation in other languages.

The pawns, it is easy to perceive, are derived from paon (a foot) Hindoostanee, piadah Persian, and padati Sanscrit.

The learned Doctor Hyde says, "that the word chess is derived from the Persian word shah or K x 3 . king,

king, which word is often used in playing, to caution the king against danger. Hence Europeans and others have denominated the game Shachiludium and Shailudium; and the English Chess."

The term Mate used at the termination of the game is from the Persian shah-mat, the king is

conquered or driven to the last distress.

The Persians also have a term peculiar to themselves, to denote the advancement of a pawn or piada. When it arrives at the last line of checks in the adversary's division, they say it is ferzeen or distinguished, and in case the vizeer or ferz has been lost, it assumes its rank, and is distinguished by one of the adversary's pawns being placed on the

same square with it.

When I sat down to write this letter, I had no idea of extending it to so great a length, nor had I, as you will easily perceive, formed any regular plan of discussion. I therefore fear it will not only be found tedious, but perplexed. Yet, however imperfect or unimportant in itself, I am induced to hope it will be received with indulgence, as tending to excite the inquiries of abler critics on a subject equally interesting and curious, and to produce that collision of mind whence truth is elicited.

I have the honour to remain,

Dear Sir,

Your obliged and faithful servant,

HIRAM COX.

Waujea Province of Chittagong, May 28th, 1799.

P. S. I have annexed a comparative Table of the names and terms used at the game of Chess in four principal Asiatic, and four principal European languages.

H. COX.

# COMPARATIVE TABLE of Terms used at the Game of Chess, in four principal Asiatic, and four principal European languages.

				50				
Burmha,	Chit-tharein.	Meng.	Chekoy.	(General) Chein, (Elephant.) Mhee, (Cavalry.) Rut,ha, (War cha-	riot.)	Kwai.	Shoombe.	
Chinese.	Choke Choohong-	Choohong, (Gene- Meng.	Sou, (Counsellor) Chekoy.	Tchong, Elephant Mái, (Horse Tche (Warchariot,)	Paoo, (Artillery.) Yein, (foot soldiers)	Sheh, Kish, kisht, B. Ping, Foot soldiers, Kwai.		
Persian.	Shutrang, Shatranj,	Sháh. Pádsháh,	Viziv Ferz Ferzi	(minister) Fil Pil (Elephant,) Asp. Feres (Horse,) Rukh,	Peadah, Bidek,	t, B.	Mát. Sheh mát,	
Sanscrit.	Chaturanga, Chatu- Shutrang, Shatranj, Choke Choohong- Chit-tharein.	raji, Raja,	Koenigin, Dame, Mantri (A) (Prime Vizir Ferz Ferzi	Springer, Hasti, Filu, Elephant, Fil Pil (Elephant,) Tchong, Elephant Chein, (Elephant.) Ritter, Aswa, (Horse) Asp. Feres (Horse,) Mái, (Horse Ratha, (a Car) Nau-Rukh, Tche (Warchariot.) Rut, ha, (warchariot.) Rut, ha, (warchariot.) Rut, ha,	ca. or Koca (a finp) or boat.) Padáti, Padíca, (foot Peadah, Bidek,	soldier,)		
German.	Scachkspiel,	Koenig,	1000	Springer, Ritter, Elephant, Roche,	Baur,	Schach,	Schach matt,	R The Concerit and Design towns in this this
Italian.	Scacchi,	Ré,	Regina, Dame,	Alfino, Springer Cavaliere, Cavallo, Ritter, Rocco, Elephan	Pedina, Pedona, Baur,	E'chec au Roi, Scaccoral Rè,	Scacco Matto,	D. J. D.
French.	E'checs,	Roi,	Dame,	Fou, Cavalier, Tour, Roi,	Pion,	E'chec au Roi,	Checkmate, or E'chec et mat, Scacco M. Hate.	To Concorit of
C-O. Gu	Christs,	Kabaga Banaga	Qecn,	Bighop, Kright, Carleor Rook, Tour, Roi,	Parametrian No.	Check,	Checkmate, or	itiz

Chaturanga; the true, ame of Chess.

Chaturanga; the true, ame of Chess.

This piece is not used in the game of Chaturaji, described in the preceding paper; but is mentioned in Sanscrit books as one of the pieces of the Chaturanga; the true, amendates the content of the conte an. B. The Sanscrit and Persian terms in this table are expressed according to Sir W. Jones's system of orthography.

Note referred to in page 484, and corrections of previous papers in this Volume, by H. Cole-Brooke, Esq.

The term (naucá) which occurs in the passage translated by SIR WILLIAM JONES from the Bhowishya Purán, undoubtedly signifies a boat, and has no other acceptation. The four members of an army, as explained in the Amara cosha, certainly are elephants, horses, chariots and infantry. Yet, there is no room to suspect a mistake in the translation; on the contrary, he practice of the game called Chaturaji, confirms the translation; for a boat, not a chariot, is one of the pieces, and the game is played by four persons with long dice. Another sort of Chaturanga, the same with the Persian and the Hindustani chess, is played by two persons and without dice. In Bengal, a boat is one of the pieces at this game likewise; but, in some parts of India, a camel takes the place of the bishop, and an elephant that of the rook; while the Hindus of the peninsula (I mean those of Carnátaca above the Gháts) preserve, as I am informed, the chariot among the pieces of the game. I find also, in an antient Treatise of Law, the elephant, horse and chariot, mentioned as pieces of the game of Chaturanga. The substitution of a camel, or of a boat, for the chariot, is probably an innovation; but there is no reason for thence inferring a mistake in the translation, or in the reading, of the passage which SIR WILLIAM Jones extracted from the Bawishya Purán.

# CORRECTION.

Page 180, note (3). S'ácambharí in the modern S'ámbher, samous for its salt lakes. It is situated at the distance of about thirty miles west of Jeypúr.

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# APPENDIX.

## RULES OF THE ASIATIC SOCIETY,

Continued from the Sixth Volume.

JANUARY 2d, 1800.

RESOLVED,

That in future the Meetings of the Society be held on the first Wednesday, instead of the first Thursday of every Month.

JULY 2d, 1800.

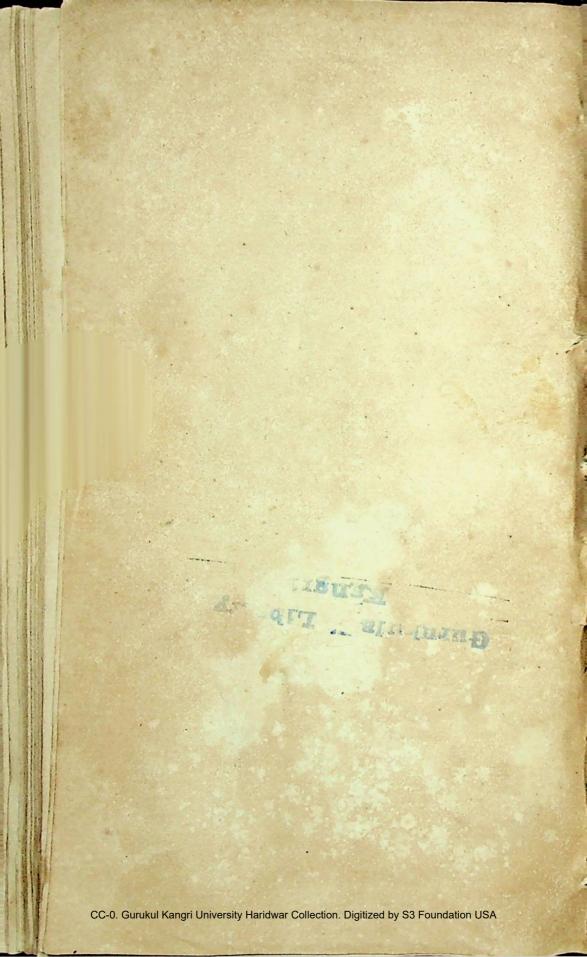
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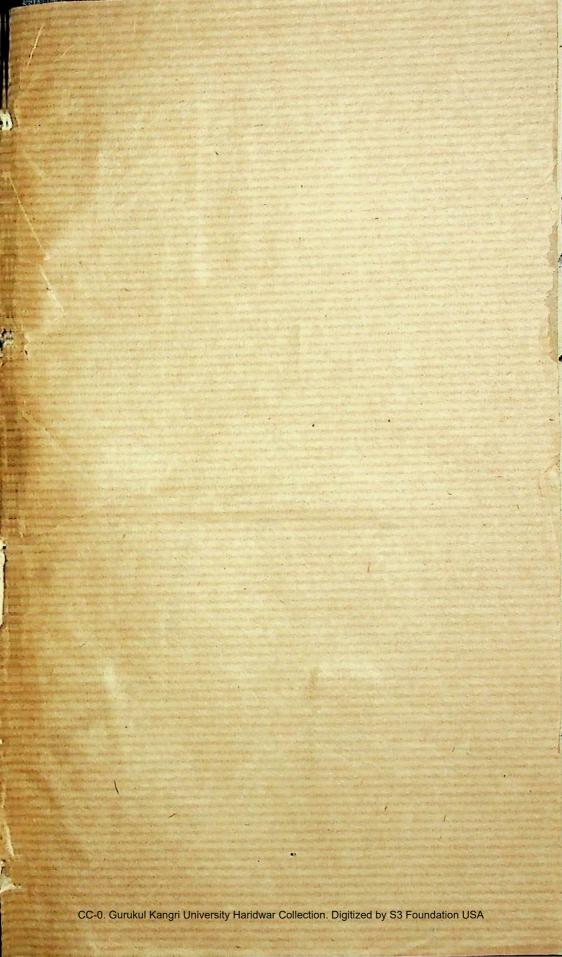
That the fixed Meetings of the Society be in future held Quarterly, on the first Wednesday of January, April, July, and October, and that if any business should occur to require intermediate Meetings, they may be summoned by the Presidents, for whom the right is reserved of appointing, when necessary, any other day of the first week in the foregoing months for the fixed Meeting of that quarter, in lieu of Wednesday aforesaid.

END OF VOL. VII.

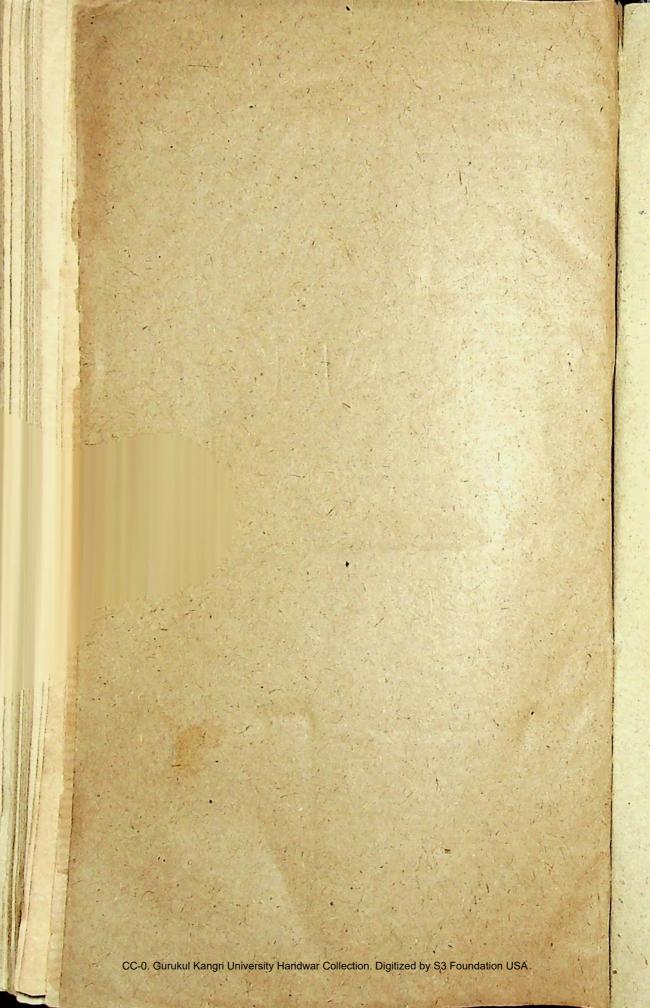
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